The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 12, 1890.

The Week.

THE Silver Bill which was forced through the House on Saturday calls for an appropriation of $54,000,000 per annum from the Treasury as a starting point. How much of the resulting currency (Treasury notes and silver dollars) the public may buy and permanently use, we cannot know beforehand. Whatever amount is thus bought the Treasury will be reimbursed for. The balance will be an expenditure and a drain upon the Secretary's gold balance. The bill is very crooked in its details, but it comes to this, that if the Secretary can arrange with somebody, or some bank, to present the new Treasury notes at the Treasury and demand bullion for them, he can keep down his expenditure for bullion, but if he cannot do this, the notes will be tendered for taxes and duties. The revenue of the Government will be composed in a larger and larger degree of silver. The Secretary will continue to pay out gold or gold value as long as possible. As long as his revenues exceed his expenditures of all kinds, including his expenditures for silver bullion, he can maintain gold payments. Whenever the balance turns the other way, he will be obliged to pay silver. Then we shall be on the silver standard, and every man's money will be worth something less that it was before. There is evidently an expectation that the Secretary will be able to guard his gold balance by means of the clause authorizing him to turn over the bullion he has bought to the holders of the Treasury notes, but it is doubtful if he can do so.

Since the new rules were adopted in the House, the caucus, the lash, and the gag have been substituted for debate and deliberation to a rather alarming extent. If things go on as they are now going, there will soon be no House of Representatives left, but merely a Speaker, a caucus, and a few chairmen of committees. All bills will be passed by "counting a quorum," the minority sitting speechless and voteless. The good understanding which goes so far to make representative institutions workable, will be gone—if indeed it is not already gone. It is best, we think, that Speaker Reed's system should be carried out, so that all parties may know what of good or evil there is in it. The next measure to come before the caucus will be the Federal Election Law, and the next after that will be perhaps the Pacific Railroad Funding Bill. Each time that the lash and the gag are applied there will be a residuum of discontent in the ranks of the majority. When this residuum becomes sufficiently large and sufficiently exasperated, the caucus yoke will be thrown off, or the people may at the coming election throw out the lashers and gaggers at one bounce. This is the result most likely to follow.

One of the saddest spectacles at Washington, we are told, is that of Congressman Farquhar bewailing the tax on barley in the McKinley Tariff Bill. About ten million bushels of barley are imported from Canada yearly, principally through the ports of Buffalo and Oswego, at a duty of ten cents per bushel. A large and varied industry in malting, warehousing, and brewing has grown up, of which Canadian barley is the raw material. The McKinley bill raises the duty to 30 cents per bushel, and will, if adopted, annihilate those industries, so the people engaged in the handling of Canadian barley say. Very likely Congressman Farquhar would be annihilated by the same blow. He has been a cantankerous supporter of high tariffs. No duty was ever too heavy for him to swallow until barley was reached. In the last Congress he signalized himself by supporting a duty of 2 1-10 cents per pound on tin plate. We do not see why he should be cast down now, seeing that he has got what he wanted on tin plate, even if he has got a little more than he wanted on barley.

A letter from Philadelphia to the *Dry Goods Economist* a few days ago mentioned the fact that the price of pearl buttons had already advanced, in anticipation of the passage of the McKinley bill, from 40 cents to 60 cents per gross. It added that "the cheapest pearl button now costs, landed, 17 cents per gross, whereas the duty alone which these will have to pay will be 36 cents per gross. In the higher grades the advance will be proportionately less, but in lower qualities it is most serious and is already showing its effects here in demoralizing trade." Some further information was contributed by Mr. G. Blumenthal to the Senate Finance Committee the other day. He showed, by exhibiting a shell, the various grades of pearl buttons made from one and the same shell, the very finest of which would pay at the new proposed rate 106 per cent. for a twenty-line button, and in the cheapest grade 500 per cent., or an average for the six grades as now imported, made from the same shell, of 250 per cent. for a twenty-line button; but as there are a great many more imported of the three cheaper than of the three better grades, the average on importations as they take place to-day would amount to over 350 per cent. Besides this, there are cheaper grades of shell, and he showed samples whereof a button that is imported by the thousands of gross every week would pay an ad-valorem duty from eighteen to twenty-four line of 640 per cent. In reply to a question by Senator Voorhees, he said that the cheapest grades are principally used by the large manufacturers of shirts, underwear, etc., and he showed the Committee a sample of a button which is used by the tens of thousands of gross by shirt-manufacturers, and which would pay at the new rate an ad-valorem duty of 571 per cent. In conclusion he created quite a stir among the Senators by giving the facts as to a small invoice of pearl and other buttons which arrived by steamship *Eider*, June 3, and which were entered at the New York Custom-house on the following day. This invoice, showing a market value of $1,600.80, paid a duty at 25 per cent. of $400.20. At the new rate of duty as proposed in the McKinley bill this same invoice would pay $5,187.60.

Mr. Whitman's Wool-Manufacturers' Association had a hasty meeting in Boston on Thursday, and passed a resolution urgently recommending to the Finance Committee of the Senate an amendment to the McKinley bill so as to make all yarns and cloths of woollen or worsted dutiable at a uniform rate, and of course at the highest rate—the bill as passed by the House having fixed one rate for goods valued at thirty cents per pound or less, and another and higher rate for those valued at a higher figure. The Boston *Journal of Commerce* says that there was "a tacit understanding" between the Committee of Ways and Means that there should be no dividing line, but that all kinds of goods should be taxed at the same rate without regard to value, but that "some not very creditable work was done on these sections of the bill by the Committee on Ways and Means, through the influence of the New England member of it, much to his reproach." This is rough on Gov. Dingley, but the *Journal* makes it even rougher by adding that the dividing line was inserted, "*somewhat clandestinely*," for the presumed purpose of reconciling the minority of the Committee to the general tenor of the tariff on these classes of wool manufacture. "Attempts were made to rectify these errors, though but partially, when the bill was up before the House, but they signally failed, much to the condemnation of the influence that occasioned their introduction." This reveals the meaning of the two votes in the House on the woollen schedule in which the Committee of Ways and Means were beaten. They had made a concession to the poorer classes of the community by putting a lower rate of duty on the cheaper goods, and they tried to withdraw their concession, but the House would not let them do so. Hence the hasty meeting and action of Mr. Whitman's Association.

The circular of the Wool-Consumers' Association asking the coöperation of all manufacturers and dealers in wool in a suitable protest against any increase in the present duties on wool, and in favor of a reduction of the same, is signed by eighteen large manufacturing companies and firms in New England. The objects of the Association are much broader, however, than any consideration of the McKinley bill. They go beyond the present Congress altogether, and look to the eventual

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abolition of all duties on raw materials. The signers of the circular know, of course, what this means. It means the eventual abolition of protective duties on woollen goods also, and for this they are prepared. They do not say that they are ready to enter into competition with the manufacturers of all nations, but this is what they have in mind. They have counted the cost, and arrived at the conclusion that there is more solid prosperity for them in a tariff for revenue only than in any tariff for protection that they can ever expect to see enacted and maintained in this country. The formation of the Wool-Consumers' Association splits the Wool-Manufacturers' Association, of which Mr. William Whitman is President, into two parts, and weakens the latter by so much.

The organ of the American Protective Tariff League, in its issue of May 30, advances a queer argument for a duty on imported hides. It is that such a duty "would directly and immediately benefit the farmer and stock-raiser throughout the nation," and *also* that it would give the State Department at Washington something to trade on in the way of reciprocity with South America. In other words, it would be a good thing to put the duty on for the benefit of the farmer, and then to take it off for the benefit of somebody else. This clever device is accompanied by the following statement:

"Semi-officially we can state that Secretary Blaine has now taken this position and recommends an import duty on hides."

It is not stated that Secretary Blaine has taken both positions—the farmer position and the something-to-trade-on position—but in his younger days, when he was doing business with Warren Fisher, jr., his agility would have been equal to both.

Retaliation against the McKinley bill has found a voice in France in the adoption of prohibitory duties on Indian corn, and now a report comes from Mexico that an export duty will be levied on silver-lead ore in order to supplement the effect of the Treasury regulations which have interfered with that growing and profitable traffic along our southern border. The more we have of this mutual crippling of trade the better. There is a wide scope for usefulness in the McKinley bill. It would be a good thing if Canada, in retaliation for the trebling of our duty on barley, would treble her own duty on corn, of which we sell her 8,000,000 to 10,000,000 bushels annually, or about the same quantity as the barley we buy from her. The eyes of a good many people would be opened by this process of getting rich by taxation and mutual scarcity. We should not wonder if Senator Hiscock as well as Congressman Farquhar might learn something eventually by means of the tax on barley.

The action of the Farmers' Alliance Convention at Huron, South Dakota, last week, deserves the attention of the country as a sign of the drift of sentiment among the agricultural population at the West. Although no mention of politics was made in the call for the meeting, it was decided, by a vote of 413 to 83, to organize a new party, and a convention to nominate a full ticket for the fall campaign was called to meet early in July. The organization is to be called the Independent party, and one of its principles is that "our tariff laws should be so changed as to reduce the present rate, taxing luxuries the highest, putting on the free list all articles of prime necessity and raw materials which enter into manufactures, raising only sufficient revenue for the needs of economic government."

The Indiana Service-Pension Association held a largely attended meeting on June 2, and passed resolutions insisting upon the immediate passage of a service-pension law, and declaring that no one should receive the support of soldiers for any office who is opposed to "*our just demands.*" This is the depth to which the patriotism of 1861 has sunk in 1890—a "*demand*" for a pension to every one who entered the army—good, bad, or indifferent; volunteer, drafted, or bounty-jumper; well or ill; rich or poor; the broken-down and penniless veteran now just turning seventy, who served four years at the front, or the millionaire business man in the prime of middle life, who spent 100 days in a recruiting camp during the last months of the war. And this insolent "*demand*" is coupled with a threat of vengeance against any aspirant for office who has the manhood to resist it. It is a melancholy spectacle.

John Dean was mustered into the service of the United States February 25, 1863, but never got any nearer the seat of war than Staten Island. While in camp there he contracted a shameful disease, on account of which he went to the hospital and never rejoined his regiment. On the 7th of April, 1864, he was discharged from the service for disability, the surgeon of volunteers in charge of the hospital certifying that he had lost his eyesight through this disease, and taking the precaution to add to his official record, "Not a case for pension." In 1877 this rascal had the impudence to apply for a pension, on the pretence that his misfortune was due to disease contracted in the service, but the Board of Surgeons who examined him in June, 1878, made short work of his case. Ten years more having passed, and his impudence having grown with his years, he applied to Congress for the special mark of honor implied in the passage of a private pension bill for his especial benefit, and such a bill was rushed through both houses. President Cleveland, however, interfered with his veto, and saved the honorable men on the pension roll from the shame of having such a person in their company. A few months later a new President came in, the bill was again passed, and the *Congressional Record* of June 3 announced that Benjamin Harrison, who was evidently familiar with all the facts in this history, had allowed the bill granting a pension to John Dean to become a law without his signature!

The Brooklyn Post-office is the most important Federal office in the third city of the country. Until four years ago it had been conducted as a part of the political Machine. During the latter portion of the period the eleemosynary principle was also recognized in filling the place, the office being given to a man who did not possess the first qualification for it, on the ground that he was a wounded soldier and poor. Having waited more than a year after his inauguration for the term of the incumbent to expire, Mr. Cleveland, in the summer of 1886, appointed as his successor Joseph C. Hendrix, a man of newspaper training and executive capacity. Mr. Hendrix was a Democrat in politics, but no resident of Brooklyn would ever have had any intimation as to his political views from anything in his administration. He simply put the office upon a business basis, and kept it there. All his energies were devoted to the effort to give Brooklyn the best possible postal service which the facilities at his command would permit. Three months had not passed before the whole community recognized the effects of the change, and each year has made the citizens more grateful for the good fortune of Mr. Hendrix's selection. Mr. Wanamaker has repeatedly alluded to him as "the model Postmaster of the United States."

Yet this "model Postmaster" has just been discharged by his employer. Worse still, the place has been given to a man who knows absolutely nothing about the postal service, a stonecutter by trade, who has built up a business which takes all his time. Worst of all, the place is given to this man, not because anything in his record indicates that he will make a good Postmaster, but solely because he is a prominent Republican politician, who has been twice defeated for Mayor, and who therefore ought to be "recognized." Except for his prominence in politics, nobody would ever have thought of picking him out as the man to keep the Brooklyn Post-office in its present condition as the best in the country. In other words, "the essential and discriminating test" in his selection has been "party service," as distinguished from "fitness," in the pledge given by Benjamin Harrison to the people of Brooklyn two years ago, when he promised them that "in appointments to every grade and department fitness, and not party service, should be the essential and discriminating test."

President Harrison deserves and will receive the commendation of independent-minded men for his veto of the bill providing for the erection of a public building at Hudson, N. Y., a city of only about 10,000 people, with gross postal receipts of less than $15,000 a year, which show but a slight increase during the past decade, on the ground that it is "very clear that the public needs do not suggest nor justify such an expenditure as is contemplated by this bill." Inde-

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pendent-minded men commended President Cleveland for similar use of the veto power. A good many Republican organs then condemned it as "picayunish business." Doubtless they will see the matter in a different light now.

It is most unfortunate that suspicion should be cast upon the census in the South by the very methods adopted for taking it, but such is the case. Here are two illustrations of the methods adopted: W. E. Webb was appointed one of the Supervisors in North Carolina, after having signed this agreement: "This is to certify that if I am appointed a Supervisor of the Eleventh Census for the Fourth District of North Carolina, the Republicans of each county in my district shall have the control of the patronage, and that I will lend my influence to that party." The agreement is in the possession of the editor of a negro paper, who publishes it to show that Webb "has gone back on his pledges," inasmuch as he has not confined his appointments of enumerators to Republicans. Lafourche Parish, in Louisiana, had 11,282 whites to 7,806 blacks by the last census, and twelve enumerators were appointed to take the census this year. If they were to be divided between the two races in proportion to their numbers, seven would be whites and five blacks. In point of fact, only three whites were appointed out of the whole twelve, and, to make matters worse, the reputation of some of the nine negroes is represented to be bad. This is not the way in which a man who wanted simply to get an accurate census would go to work.

One of the best features of the Lake Mohonk Conference on the negro question has been the frank confession by Northern speakers that the prejudice against the negro is still very strong at the North. President McGill of Swarthmore College, for example, pointed out that in Philadelphia a negro is allowed to carry mortar up a ladder, but is not allowed to lay bricks; while if he should undertake to drive a horse-car, he would be mobbed. Another speaker told how a young colored man, who had a genius for mechanics, once came to him from the South, and he endeavord in vain to get him a place in a machine-shop, either in Pennsylvania or Massachusetts. The negro in question, he added, is now living in France, and not unnaturally hates the United States as the devil hates holy water. And yet people in Massachusetts and Pennsylvania profess to wonder that the whites in Southern States object to the appointment of negroes as postmasters!

The result of the Oregon election is a splendid tribute to the personal popularity of Sylvester Pennoyer, the present Governor and Democratic candidate for reëlection, who has a majority of about 3,500, although the Republicans swept the State on national issues, and Binger Hermann, the present Congressman, and Republican candidate for reëlection, has about 9,000 majority. It is very rarely the case that so remarkable a divergence is shown in the totals for two offices filled at the same time. On national issues Oregon appears to be safely Republican, the growth of population during the past ten years having helped that party, which in 1880 gave Garfield only 764 more votes than Hancock received.

Republican organs in Western Prohibition States, where "original-package" saloons have been started, talk about the restoration of liquor-selling "by the order of Chief-Justice Fuller." But Chief-Justice Fuller and the other two Democrats on the bench of the Supreme Court could not issue an order which would have any effect. The Supreme Court has nine members, of whom six are Republicans. The "solid Democratic vote" is therefore two short of a majority. What gave effect to the opinion held by Fuller, Field, and Lamar was the fact that it was shared by more than enough of their Republican associates to make a majority on that side. The "original-package" saloons in Iowa and Kansas are running by the order of Justices Miller, Bradley, and Blatchford just as much as by the order of Chief-Justice Fuller and Justices Field and Lamar.

France and England have got into a little trouble over fishing rights on the coast of Newfoundland, reserved, or rather defined anew, by the treaty of 1783, for they were originally reserved by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. The former treaty gave the French exclusive fishing rights on the western and northern side of the island, and they have ever since exercised them. These rights to fish include the right to land and dry the fish, "without interruption by the competition of the British." The immediate effect of this has, of course, been to exclude about seven hundred miles of coast from settlement by the native population and by immigrants, and the practical result of this prohibition has been to cut off a large portion of the interior from settlement also, because people will not settle in the interior when they have no access to the coast. This is the first grievance of the Newfoundlanders. The second is like unto it. They say that as a matter of fact the French have for a long time past been caring less and less for these shore fisheries, and have had fewer ships and men engaged in them, having been drawn off from them by the fisheries on the Banks, which are much more profitable; and that instead of fishing for cod, which is what the treaty meant them to do, they have established lobster-canning factories along the shore, carried on by speculators who have no connection with fish, beyond buying the lobsters caught by the natives. The Newfoundlanders maintain that the treaty gives no right to set up an industry of this sort, and they demand of the home Government that, as this lobster-canning is illegal, and as the fishery rights are now almost worthless to the French, all their rights under the treaty shall be bought, and the full possession of the island be restored to the colony.

The attention of France has been called to the few bits of territory which she still retains in the New World more within the last twenty years than ever before since the loss of Canada. The humiliation of the war of 1870, the new-born desire for colonies, the rapid multiplication of the French Canadians and their growing hostility to the British connection, have combined to rouse in France a strong interest in the Newfoundland question and a strong desire to "make capital out of it." The British Government is much worried by it. The colonists in Newfoundland of both parties are urging them to do something about it, but Lord Salisbury clearly shrinks from any vigorous attempt to deal with it, because he foresees that any concessions France may be willing to make would have to be purchased at a very high price. It is fully expected that part of this price would be the British evacuation of Egypt, or the cession of Gambia on the African coast, neither of which a Tory Ministry, with so much Jingo feeling behind it, would venture to make. British investments in Egyptian stocks and bonds are now so heavy that he would be a bold Minister who should venture to talk to the moneyed men in the city of the withdrawal of the British troops from Egypt. And yet there is hardly a doubt that the French Ministry will not venture to face their public with a surrender of French rights beyond the Atlantic without getting something handsome in return—that is, something that will gratify the national pride.

President Carnot has done a very sensible thing in releasing the young Duc d'Orléans from confinement and sending him across the frontier. This is what ought to have been done with him in the first instance. He never was, and can hardly ever become, a danger to the republic. The hereditary principle is as dead in France as the divine right of kings. It is so dead that it is the unanimous testimony of competent observers that very few of the rural population know who the Duc d'Orléans, or his father, the Comte de Paris, is, or why he claims the throne. What has taken the place of the hereditary tradition, in so far as its place has been taken by anything, in the French popular mind, is the Cæsarist tradition, started by the first Napoleon. The danger to the Republic lies now in the readiness of the French people in times of trouble for a military dictator—that is, for the rule of the successful soldier—and it does not care in the least whose son he is. Boulanger's career showed clearly what the Republic has to fear in the matter of competitors. The heir to the old French throne is just now, perhaps, more harmless than ever, owing to the great mistake of the Comte de Paris in allying himself with Boulanger. As far as its effect on the minds of the more intelligent Republicans goes, it was a mistake hardly less calamitous to the Royalist cause than the service of the émigrés in 1792 in the invading army of the Duke of Brunswick.

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SENATOR SHERMAN'S SPEECH.

SENATOR SHERMAN'S speech on the silver question on Thursday last contained a great deal of truth very strongly put, and no more error than was deemed necessary to float the whole. It was in large part a reply to Senator Stewart's charge that the dropping of the silver dollar from the coinage, in the Act of 1873, was procured by stealth and fraud, in which Senator Sherman, as Chairman of the Finance Committee, had borne a large part. The facts having been repeatedly published in our columns, we need not now recall them. But there were two facts brought out by Mr. Sherman that have considerable personal interest, and which we had never heard of before. One is that Mr. Sherman himself voted *against* the Coinage Act of 1873, and the other is that Mr. Stewart of Nevada, and every other Pacific Coast Senator, both Republican and Democratic, voted *for* it. The reason why Mr. Sherman voted against it had no reference to or bearing upon the silver dollar, for as to that particular question all members in both branches of Congress were agreed. He voted against it because an amendment had been inserted abolishing all mint charges for assaying and coining, *i. e.*, making the Government work for nothing for the benefit of the gold-miners of the whole world. This he considered such a deviation from custom, precedent, and right principle that he thought the benefits of the other parts of the bill were more than offset by this bad feature.

The result of the personal bout was that Stewart was dragged around the Senate Chamber at the tail of Sherman's chariot several times, and finally left there, a bruised and mangled corse. With his last gasp he tried to show that there had been a mistake made at the clerk's desk while the bill of 1873 was under consideration, but here also Mr. Sherman proved that he was in error by producing the original copy, with the clerk's marks on it in his own handwriting. Every point sought to be made by Stewart on this branch of the subject was answered by Mr. Sherman with overwhelming proofs, except one. That one was the stale falsehood repeated by Stewart, that the late Ernest Seyd came to this country in 1873 or thereabouts to work in the interest of the "gold-bugs" of Europe to get the United States to demonetize silver—the fact being that Mr. Seyd was an industrious writer and advocate of bimetallism. He was what we should now call a strong silver-man. He wrote frequently for the newspapers on that side of the question, and never on the other side. He left a brochure of 112 pages, entitled 'The Fall in the Price of Silver, Its Causes, Its Consequences, and Their Possible Avoidance,' published in 1876, *i. e.*, two years before our present Silver Coinage Law was passed. If he had any influence at all on our legislation, it must have been in favor of silver and not against it. Yet every time the silver question comes up for debate some ignoramus or falsifier trots out Ernest Seyd as a monometallist sneak from Europe, sent over here to disparage silver and get it demonetized.

Aside from his controversy with Stewart, Mr. Sherman's argument consisted of two parts, one showing that the increase of the circulating medium in this country during the past twelve years (1878 to 1889 inclusive) had been more rapid than the increase of population; the other showing "how to increase, if possible, the market value of silver in its legal ratio to gold." The former proposition was established to the satisfaction of every lover of truth. It was proved by official statistics that the circulating medium of all kinds in 1878 was $805,793,807, and that in 1889 it was $1,405,018,000, an increase of upwards of $600,000,000, all of it at par with gold, and all of it consequently at the highest state of efficiency for commercial purposes. Not only so, but the banking facilities by which the wholesale business of the country and a large share of the retail business in cities is transacted, have been increasing in equal measure. Nobody can prove, or give plausible grounds for supposing, that any kind of business has suffered for the want of currency, or that any more could have been used advantageously. Mr. Sherman did not say that if more could have been used advantageously, we should have drawn it from the world's stock of gold, just as other countries do under like circumstances. Perhaps he thought that this was more than the public would swallow at present; and in fact it would not have fitted in very well with some things that he said when he came to the second head of his discourse.

His second proposition was that something more ought to be done to keep the circulation expanding, and at the same time to "boost" silver if practicable. Upon the latter point he said:

> "Now, sir, I am willing to do all I can with safety, even to taking great risks, to increase the value of silver to gold at the old ratio, and to supply paper substitutes for both for circulation; but there is one immutable, unchangeable, ever-existing condition, that the paper substitute must always have the same purchasing power as gold and silver coin, maintained at their legal ratio with each other. I feel a conviction, as strong as the human mind can have, that the free coinage of silver now by the United States will be a grave mistake and a misfortune to all classes and conditions of our fellow-citizens. I also have a hope and belief, but far from a certainty, that the measure proposed for the purchase of silver bullion to a limited amount, and the issue of Treasury notes for it, will bring silver and gold to the old ratio, and will lead to an agreement with other commercial nations to maintain the free coinage of both metals.
>
> "And now, sir, I want to state in conclusion, without any purpose to bind myself to detail, that I will vote for any measure that will, in my judgment, secure a genuine bimetallic standard—one that will not demonetize gold or cause it to be hoarded or exported, but will establish both silver and gold as common standards and maintain them at a fixed ratio, not only in the United States, but among all the nations of the world."

He went on to say that he would receive into the Treasury all the gold and silver produced in the United States at its market value, and would issue Treasury notes for these metals to an amount not exceeding their cost, and confer upon such Treasury notes all the qualities and attributes that are within the constitutional power of Congress. He would also "support and maintain them as money by coining the silver and gold as needed upon the present legal ratios, and by a pledge of all the revenues of the Government and all the wealth and credit of the United States." There is a good deal of confusion in this statement, but it is not a confusion in the Senator's own mind. He knows perfectly well that there is no market value for gold, since that is the index of market value for everything else. He knows, also, that our Treasury does now receive all the gold that anybody chooses to offer, whether produced in this country or not. Therefore, when he made this offer respecting the gold and silver produced in this country, he intended to give an impression of extreme liberality and impartiality. What he said on this point should be read as referring to silver only. Pledging all the revenues and wealth and credit of the United States to support and maintain gold and silver coin means nothing as to gold, because gold redeems itself; but it means much as to silver. It means that Mr. Sherman would pledge the Government to redeem all its silver coin in gold at the legal ratio. This is a pledge which the Government has never yet made, although it has, up to this time, performed the duty without making the pledge.

In spite of these Shermanesque drawbacks, the speech is by much the best that has been delivered in either branch of Congress on the subject.

HIGH LICENSE IN MASSACHUSETTS.

MASSACHUSETTS has now tried its High-License Law for a year, and instead of finding in it a solution of the "temperance question," is even deeper in the mire of intemperance. The operation of the new law has been attended by such an increase in the arrests for drunkenness that the party of moral ideas which was responsible for its enactment has been at its wits' end to know how to appease the increasing clamor of its temperance members, and at the same time retain the allegiance of its new allies, the liquor-dealers. A year ago the Republican managers were rubbing their hands at their successful management. Their reputation for favoring morality was to be maintained by an increase of the minimum of the license fee to $1,000, the small liquor-dealers and their political "influence" (generally Democratic) were to be cut off by the law limiting the number of licensed places to one for each thousand of the population, and the more influential men were to be managed for the good of the party. The Prohibitionists were supposed to be silenced by the vote on the constitutional amendment. The people were duly impressed with the efforts of their legislators, and, at the annual elections under the Local-Option Law, eighteen of the twenty-five cities voted in favor of license by large majorities.

The licensing boards fixed the fee in many cases far above the statutory minimum. In Boston the law allowed one licensed place to each 500 people, but, even so, the number of places was reduced from 1,588 to 780, paying fees ranging from $1,000 to $1,500. In Lowell, where the large population of

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foreign-born mill-operatives makes the liquor question one of peculiar difficulty, the number was reduced from 198 to 64, while the fee was increased from $500 to $1,300. In Fall River, the rival of Lowell as a mill city, 260 licensed places gave way to 56, and the license fee, formerly $400, ranged from $1,300 to $1,800, nearly one-third of the saloons paying the latter fee. In general, throughout the State, the license fees were increased from two to four times their former amount, while the number of saloons was about one-third of the number licensed the previous year.

With this great blow at the liquor traffic, the people of the commonwealth settled themselves for an era of quiet and sobriety. As soon, however, as the new system was fairly inaugurated, the arrests for drunkenness and disturbance began to increase. In Boston the month of June showed 2,239 arrests for drunkenness, as against 1,680 in the same month the previous year, and the whole summer showed an increase of nearly a thousand arrests over the previous year, with a marked increase also in disturbance. In Fall River, June showed a jump from 90 to 125 in the arrests for drunkenness over 1888. In Lowell the effect was more immediate, and in May the arrests for this cause were 315, as against 246 in the year before. This carnival of drunkenness went on in other cities also, and the report of the Prison Commission for the year, five months of which had been under high license, showed an increase of arrests for drunkenness throughout the State of 5,005, 90 per cent. of which was in the cities. No statistics, however, were needed to bring this state of things to the attention of order-loving citizens; it was too apparent, and the voters expressed their views at the next annual vote on the license question. Lowell, which the year before had given a majority of 2,600 in favor of license, voted against license for the first time in its history by the decisive majority of 700; and finds in May of this year 172 arrests for drunkenness, as against 315 under high license. Fall River changed its majority of 1,800 for license in 1888 into a majority of 1,400 for prohibition in 1889. Worcester also added itself to the list of cities declaring in favor of prohibition, so that this year twelve cities have declared in favor of it, and the remaining thirteen have retained the license system by largely reduced majorities. The cities thus newly converted to prohibition gave heavy majorities against the prohibitory amendment to the Constitution some six months previously, and are generally so removed from any neighboring basis of supply as virtually to declare for prohibition in preference to the kind of high license provided by the Republican Legislature.

The responsibility for this failure of a system that has produced such good results elsewhere lies largely with the Republican politicians. Accustomed for years to tickling the moral ideas of the party by annually "tinkering the liquor law" in a few minor particulars, they were finally forced by public sentiment to the important step of adopting high license. Instead, however, of studying the laws of other States and drawing a comprehensive and consistent act, they continued the tinkering process by adding to the existing patchwork of statutes two acts of a few lines each, one limiting the number of licenses and the other increasing the license fee. They took no steps towards taking the licensing power from boards open to political influences; they made no change in the character of the bonds given by liquor-dealers or the old practice of allowing wholesale dealers to become bondsmen for hundreds of their creatures; in short, they did nothing to indicate that they had in any way changed their policy of "more law and less enforcement." The liquor-dealers, who had long and openly defied the restrictive features of the law with impunity, reasoned that if the new law forced them to pay more for their privileges, they should be entitled to take every advantage of the monopoly granted them to recompense themselves. They therefore seemed to feel that it was a business necessity to ply each customer with liquor to the extent of his purse, regardless of his condition. The bartenders thrown out of employment by the decrease in the number of saloons were soon found behind the new bars in the lucky places kept crowded to the doors. In Lynn, the City Marshal, in his annual report, frankly states that liquor-dealers have constantly violated the law against the sale of liquor to intoxicated persons, and naïvely expresses his hearty contempt for such persons. In Fall River it was openly charged that four wholesale dealers controlled the licensing body, and not only parcelled out the licenses among their creatures, but caused licenses to be issued in excess of the statutory limit. Ninety-one applications for licenses in Lynn were said to come from the creatures of two brewers.

The Republican politicians had won their game, however. In Boston the control of the police had been taken from the city and given to a commission appointed by the Governor. These commissioners, men noted for their political shrewdness, saw their opportunity, and made, it is alleged, a judicious distribution of the licenses for the good of the party, and allowed such latitude to the saloons that the arrests for drunkenness increased by two thousand during the year. The fortunate licensees were not slow to see the value of this sort of monopoly, and promptly made their bid for its continuance. The party of moral ideas woke up to find that its candidate for Governor, who was greatly distasteful to the temperance wing of the party, had been elected by a small majority, and that majority made up largely of liquor-dealers and their followings. The opponents of the saloon then took another tack, and, abandoning the hope of reform from high license, made a move in Boston to secure the enforcement of a law against public bars that had lain unenforced on the statute-books since its enactment fifteen years ago. The movement was too strong to be ignored, and the Police Commission in reply promptly appealed to the Legislature for the repeal of the law. This was refused a few weeks ago in a show of virtue, but the Republican leaders were discomfited by the passage of a resolution through both houses at the instance of the Democratic minority calling for a strict enforcement of the law. The Commissioners, however, were equal to the occasion, and construed the law to mean that the licensee must substitute tables for his bar, quietly ignoring the intent of the statute, which, as had been carefully explained by the Governor in his inaugural address, limits the sale of liquor to persons ordering meals at restaurants or hotels. Matters are thus left much as they were before, and the politicians have again outgeneralled the reformers, having declared loudly for temperance and yet left a large loophole for "deals" next fall.

AN INSIDE VIEW OF COMMERCIAL JOURNALISM.

A FEW weeks ago the *Voice*, the well-known Prohibition newspaper of this city, hit upon an ingenious scheme for testing the market value of the principles of the press of Nebraska. It sent to the publisher of every newspaper in the State the following circular letter, purporting to come from an advertising agent in Louisville, Kentucky:

"Please give me price per inch of inserting matter similar to the enclosed clippings, *first in ordinary news column, in news type, without any advertising marks, and secondly on editorial page as editorial matter without advertising marks.* If you make an attractive price on this business it is probable that I could close contract at once for as much as 100 inches, space to be used in one month, cash to accompany order."

The clippings enclosed were a collection of alleged statistics showing that the "prohibition States actually have more liquor-dealers than most of the non-prohibition States," and were so obviously designed to help the cause of liquor-dealers that the most careless reader could not fail to attribute their origin to liquor-dealing sources. The circular was sent out early in May, and the *Voice* has received over fifty responses, many of which it has published, and all of which are more or less astonishing. Not a newspaper in the State, from the best to the poorest, has declined to print the clippings as "reading notices" at varying prices per line, and only a very few have declined to print them as editorial matter.

No more instructive view of the inside of purely commercial journalism has been furnished for a long time than these letters from Nebraska publishers afford. One of the frankest of the collection is the following:

THE BEACON.
W. H. CARSON, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.
GIBBON, Neb., May 12, 1890.

Charles Turner, Louisville, Ky.:

DEAR SIR: In reply to yours of 5th inst. will say that I can give you news matter for 50 cents per inch. Editorial matter (copy to be furnished by you) for 75 cents per inch. *The Beacon is at the present writing the only paper who has not taken a start on the question, and is not going to do much unless there is something in it. We run our paper for revenue. Personally we are for high-license and against prohibition;* are publishing a paper in a prohibition city surrounded by a prohib. community, and *do not propose to cut our throat for nothing.*

Yours for Business,
W. H. CARSON.

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This is one of the highest-priced editors in the list, but seventy-five cents per inch for "editorial matter (copy to be furnished by you)" does not seem to be too high for what Mr. Carson is willing to put forth as his "views" in a community so likely to cut his throat for uttering them. The publishers of the Tecumseh *Republican* are less reasonable, but, as the following extract from their letter shows, they have the "largest circulation in the county," and a slightly more sympathetic constituency:

"Your proposition for advertising matter received. In reply would say that we will give you 100 inches for $1 per inch each insertion, with the understanding that we are to have 400 inches more at the same rate between now and the election on the Prohibition Amendment.

"The price given may seem a little high, but when it is considered that we have the largest circulation of any paper in the county, it will not seem so.

"Another fact that must not be overlooked is, that we are sure to lose a large number of subscribers, and everyone counts $1.50 off of our exchequer.

"We can refer you to James Devenney or R. M. Frost as to the standing of our paper. *They are both saloon-keepers, and vitally interested in the defeat of the Prohibition amendment.*

"*The price mentioned is for the matter to be set in ordinary type in news columns without any advertising marks whatever. We will tend to the editorial part of it and agree not to support the Prohibition amendment.* What we say, and it will be no small amount, will be done free and separate from the proposition mentioned."

This remarkable reference to liquor-dealers as suitable persons to vouch for the "standing of our paper" appears in more than one instance. The editor of the South Sioux City *Sun*, W. C. Fairbrother, who says, "We claim to be the largest and most influential paper in northeast Nebraska, and to have the largest circulation," refers to several liquor-dealers "by permission," two of whom have been implicated in a murder case. Mr. Fairbrother says his prices are 10 cents per line for local columns and 20 cents for editorial, and advises quick acceptance of them as he has offered his columns on the same terms to the Prohibition League, and is expecting to hear from the latter at any moment. "We would prefer," he says, "to close a deal with you instead of the opposition," and, "should we make a deal with you, we will guarantee to give you good service for the money, and will help you in the fight in every way we can, both by pen and outside influences." There is evidently no high moral nonsense about Mr. Fairbrother. For twenty cents a line what he offers is surely dirt cheap.

Mr. W. E. Duncan, editor and proprietor of the *Madison County Reporter*, with the "confidence of the people of this county, and double the circulation of any other paper in this county, as well as a rapid increase daily," makes the extremely handsome offer to sell out for the minimum price of $100. He says he has been very conservative on the question, and it might injure his business to come out against prohibition, adding:

"I would not like to open up for less than a hundred dollars' worth of business or more. I will ad one hundred inches of my own production in addition to what is recd. from you. While you may furnish Statistical matter I might be able to ad other arguments in other matters pertaining to this Question which will be quite necessary. The prohibitionest are now organizing camp-meeting orginizations for almost every township in the State, and will camp on the ground and are pressing every county paper for recognition. If 200 inches for 100.00 is sadesfactory let me know at once, or if you have a more liberal proposition let me know I will furnish 100 inches of my own production on the same subject."

We should say that "100 inches of my own production" at a dollar an inch, thrown in gratis, was all that any reasonable man could ask for. Few of the other editors addressed offer as much, many of them sending plain, cold business statements of their prices. Thus, the editor and proprietor of the *Nonpareil-Democrat*, of Hartington, says his editorial-page price is 15 cents per inch for single column, and 10 cents per inch for 100 or more inches, "cash accompanying the order." The editor of the Geneva *Democrat* says: "You can have my news columns at 50 cents per inch and editorials at 70 cents per inch. These are my regular prices to everybody. Circulation much greater than given in the directories." There are no words wasted in that reply. The editor of the Atkinson *Graphic* is even more terse, as well as cheaper, saying in tabulated form that he is for sale as follows:

"As news matter	15c
As Editorial	25c

Without advertising marks Cash with order."

What a revelation these letters make of the condition of the press of Nebraska! Every newspaper heard from in the State for sale, either in whole or in part! Of the press of how many other States is the same thing true? How many newspapers are there in the whole country which refuse to print "reading notices" in their news columns? The fact is, that the step from selling the news columns to that of selling the editorial columns is a very short one, and, as the Nebraska revelations show, it is very easily taken in a great majority of cases. The two sales differ only in degree. In both a fraud on the reader is attempted, and in both the paper exacts a price above ordinary advertising rates, because it lends its character and influence to give color to the fraud.

JOURNALISM IN FRANCE.

THE condition of the newspaper press is exciting just as much attention in France as it excites here. The invasions of private life by French journals are not nearly so gross as ours, nor are the assaults on public men so personal as those of some of our worst papers, but they make a more disagreeable impression on the French public than our sensational journals make on our public, because Frenchmen are much more sensitive than Americans to anything that can be considered an "insult." Epithets and abuse which Americans receive with contempt or indifference drive Frenchmen nearly wild, and in seventy-five cases out of a hundred lead to duels. The public expects a man not to submit to them without fighting, and accordingly he fights. But constant exposure to the necessity of fighting is not pleasant, and, for some time past, French Conservatives have been busy devising some mode of repressing press abuse and intrusion which would be speedy enough and decisive enough to atone for insults without a "rencontre." What was finally decided on was the bestowal on the police courts of summary jurisdiction over a large class of press offences—that is, their withdrawal from the jurisdiction of juries. The bill, we believe, originated in the Senate, and was distinctly a reactionary product, and had never much chance of passing, but it led to a great deal of discussion, and has been finally defeated.

In this discussion M. Jules Simon has borne a prominent part. He is an old statesman as well as an old journalist, who has made his mark in both French politics and literature. He is now playing the rôle of a newspaper sage; that is, he writes every few days what he calls "Mon Petit Journal," being a short article, in the nature of either comment or reminiscence or both, on any topic of the day which happens to interest him, in the columns of the *Temps*. What he says in a recent number about the condition of French journalism is in substance this: He supports Messrs. Paul Deschanel and Camille Pelletan, who have been opposing the bill, and defends their attitude in the discussion, and says that if they are not old enough to remember what French journalism used to be when M. Simon was a young man, they must have read of it or heard of it in their families. Sixty years ago French journals represented opinions, or "doctrines," as he calls them. They were founded to champion opinions, and for no other reason. Their offices were centres at which all the forces of a political party converged. They had traditions. They listened respectfully to the older men. They obeyed leaders. They cultivated solidarity. The Bohemian life of which so many tales were told was followed only by the novelist and the feuilletonist. The political journalist had both solidity and enthusiasm. He studied questions seriously. He was always ready for one of three things—controversy, battle, or imprisonment. It was not everybody who could be a journalist. No one became a journalist except by some striking piece of work (*un coup d'éclat*) or a long apprenticeship. Journalists were severe on each other. All transgressions of the laws of honor received their natural punishment, namely, dishonor. There was a disciplinary tribunal, which was never organized, and never met, but was always trying cases. Its judgments were prompt and infallible. People used not to say at that time that the press was the fourth estate; but they knew it and saw it. It was for this kind of press that Armand Carrel died.

The condition of French journalism since then, M. Simon says, has been profoundly changed, first, by the appearance of the cheap penny paper; secondly, by the disappearance of the subscription list, and the substitution of the sales at the stands and over the counter. Instead of 100,000, or 150,000 readers which the journals of that day had, those of to-day have 4,000,000. The new public which reads the newspapers now cares nothing about opinions or doctrinal discussions. In the matter of opinions all it asks for is a banner,

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and can get along, in case of need, even without this. For its daily journalistic food all it cares for is the gossip of the lobbies and the theatres, personalities, defamation, and calumny. The pen has fallen from the hands of philosophers to be taken up by newsmongers. Party politicians withdrew when the establishment of a newspaper, instead of being an effort in behalf of an idea, became a mere commercial venture. The press has passed in succession under three yokes—that of despotism under the Empire, that of the demagogues, and now of the money power, which has hooked the newspapers and uses them for its own purposes. "Where are you, Carrel," he exclaims in a burst of bitterness, "who used to defend the editorial authority? And you, Guilloutet, who used to defend the sanctity of domestic life?" Every day about ten journals are started, and one hundred journalists appear on the scene. The writing talent is not wanting—far from it; but there is no longer any question of thoughtfulness or self-sacrifice. Chateaubriand has been replaced by Timothy Trimm, and Timothy Trimm by the anonymous and venomous reporter.

Some of this talk we used to hear from Horace Greeley in his day; the rest, we cannot help thinking, we should hear from him if he were alive now.

THE BEETHOVEN FESTIVAL IN BONN.

Bonn, May 20, 1890.

The Beethoven Festival has of course awakened much local enthusiasm in Bonn, besides being the chief musical event in Germany at the present time. Apart from the universal significance of Beethoven's name in the musical world, this celebration is of particular interest to Americans from the fact that the history of the great composer's life in Bonn was only brought completely to light in the masterly biography by Mr. Alexander Wheelock Thayer, formerly American Consul in Trieste, whose name has had a most prominent place in all the utterances of the hour. Bonn has been before this the place of large musical celebrations in honor of her best-known son, particularly in 1845, at the inauguration of the monument in the Münsterplatz, and in 1871. Up to the present time, however, the small house where Beethoven was born has not been accessible to the public, and has been given up to mercantile purposes in such a way as to completely obscure all its associations with the past. There has been until lately, moreover, the absurd contest between the houses in the Bonngasse and the Rheingasse, each bearing its tablet with the explicit declaration that there was the composer's birthplace. Now, at last, the testimony has become conclusive, the Bonn Common Council has officially declared in favor of the first-mentioned house, and during the last year it was bought by an association of Bonn citizens under the honorary presidency of Joachim of Berlin. For some months it has been undergoing complete renovation, and, as far as may be, restoration to its condition in the Electoral period.

This Association has further the intention of founding in the house a museum to contain all of Beethoven's works and everything that can be collected relating to his personal history and musical activity. To this end the festival which has just closed was held. Twenty-five leading musicians of Germany and from abroad contributed their assistance in bringing out what has perhaps never been attempted before—a series of five consecutive concerts devoted entirely to the most important of Beethoven's works in the field of chamber music. This selection was made both because the compositions of this class cover a wider space of the composer's life than any other, and because they embrace a range of works less known and appreciated by the general public, to which this series was to serve as an introduction to a better acquaintance with Beethoven's most personal compositions.

Local pride and financial ends were influences at work, but the spirit of the season has been throughout that of reverence and genuine enthusiasm. The hearty response of those who had been invited to assist was a spontaneous tribute to the genius of Beethoven and the sway which he exercises to-day in the musical world. The audience included many of the best-known representatives of music in Germany, and the success of the enterprise was secured from the first. There was some doubt expressed as to whether the receptive faculties of any audience would be equal to the strain of five days' consecutive attendance upon a series of concerts devoted to one field of one author, especially as these included some of his most difficult and obscure works; but on the contrary the feeling of keen interest in Beethoven and the phases of his development was cumulative from the first. There is great variety and breadth in Beethoven's chamber music, and each of the three periods of his work was well represented. In general a chronological order was followed in each day's programme, and twenty-one numbers in all were given, including the years 1798–1826.

Naturally the quartets occupied a most prominent place; they were given for the most part by Joachim, Ahna, Wirth, and Hausmann, and the whole of the fourth day's concert consisted of the quartets 59, 95, and 130. The noticeable feature of their marvellous playing was not so much the technical perfection of each performer as the entire subordination of the *virtuoso* to the unity of the composition, and the broad, masterful spirit in which the work was approached. The last of these, which was written by the master in complete isolation, under much suffering of body and mind, contains the cavatina which was to Beethoven himself his dearest production, the very expression of his heart's sorrow which tinges so strongly the correspondence and journals of his later life. It was played with touching pathos and reverence, and marked the highest point of the whole festival. The trio op. 70, 1, was played very impressively by Profs. Seiss, Hermann, and Schröder. The gloom and melancholy of the largo in D minor in the second part (the "Bat" or "Ghost"-trio) was strangely heightened by the breaking out of a violent thunder-storm, a veritable elemental accompaniment. The last number on the third day (op. 70, 2) was played with great perfection by the veterans Reinecke of Leipsic, Joachim, and Piatti of London. The fifth and last programme was the most popular, and exhibited the greatest variety. The difficult piano-sonata in B major (op. 106) was performed by Director Buths of Düsseldorf upon a superb American Steinway piano, which seemed the favorite instrument among the pianists who appeared. The song-cycle "An die ferne Geliebte," was given by Carl Mayer of the Cologne opera; he is a popular idol in Bonn, and sang in his usually triumphant manner. His enunciation is the clearest and most agreeable I have heard in Germany. The last number was the beautiful septet, most purely melodious of Beethoven's compositions, and especially agreeable to the Bonn audience on account of its introduction of the Rhine song, "Ach Schiffer, lieber Schiffer."

There was great enthusiasm and much mutual congratulation among the audience at the close. Soon after, a special train carried about two hundred persons to Godesberg, where a banquet was held, at which the best of good feeling prevailed. Joachim toasted the artists who had contributed so unselfishly to the success of the concerts, and Reinecke responded on behalf of the guests. Consul Thayer, who was present, was saluted as "the best biographer of Beethoven," and made a short address.

There remains but little space in which to speak of the Beethoven Exposition, which was so satisfactory a part of the celebration. It was the most complete assembly of memorials of the composer which has yet been brought together, and comprises almost everything which has been preserved of documents, portraits, and objects connected with his history. The real interest of the articles shown was worthy of note, for the committee escaped the error made in the Goethe Museum at Weimar, where so prominent a place is given to articles which had nothing to do with the real mental life of the poet. There was exhibited for the first time a portrait of the youth Beethoven at the age of about twenty, a beautiful miniature, probably by his friend Gerhard von Kügelgen of Bonn. The picture has always been regarded as a likeness of Beethoven, and came by well-authenticated descent into the hands of George Henschel in London. The coloring is very fresh and well-preserved. The hair hangs over the broad forehead, and the large dreamy eyes and passionate mouth agree very well with the ideal youthful court musician. There was also shown for the first time a portrait of Beethoven's mother, with a refined, sad face, corresponding exactly with the description of her appearance in the Fischer manuscripts. Most valuable for comparative purposes is the large number of portraits and busts, especially the life and death-masks, and the paintings of Mähler, Schimon, and Stieler. From them is yet to be constructed a satisfactory likeness, though Dake's great etching is the best which has appeared. The drawing by Kloeber, and the widely circulated late likeness by Jager, are much weaker in character than the stern, earnest face which meets us in most of the other portraits. Beethoven's piano, his quartet of stringed instruments, the ear-trumpets constructed to assist his failing hearing, and many of the original scores of his works were also on exhibition.

The house in the Bonngasse is that of a well-to-do citizen in the latter part of the last century. In the hallway is a flight of stairs with a fine wrought-iron balustrade which goes back to the time mentioned. The parents of the composer only occupied the back part of the house, which is ascended by a narrow staircase. The birth-chamber is a very small room under the mansard roof, whose low ceiling is supported by clumsy beams. One little window admits a scanty light, and the boards of the floor are much worn and disfigured by age. At present the chamber contains nothing but Cauer's bust of Beethoven. The house is not yet ready for general exhibition, but the chamber was specially shown to visitors during the festival.

James Taft Hatfield.

ASCENSION.

En Route to Barbados, April 15.

The peaks of Ascension, as I first saw them

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in the early morning light of March 16, exhibited most strange and beautiful colors. A rich crimson-brown was shot through by a cool purple, with an undertone of warm yellow, and distance added a tint of hazy blue, the combination making a lovely whole. As we neared the island the colors due to distance disappeared, but the strong crimson-brown and yellow remained, for these are the real colors of the hills. The rock of the highest peak, Green Mountain, 2,850 feet high, is of a light color, overlaid by what appears from a distance as a thin varnish of greenish-gray vegetation. The ultimate peak itself, on the day of our landing, was hidden in a cloud, and during our stay this seemed to be its normal condition. The moist, southeast trade wind sweeps up the side of the mountain, and, reaching a certain elevation, its moisture becomes visible in the shape of a driving cloud, which pours over the top and down the leeward side for six or eight hundred feet, where it vanishes, and below that point all is clear. Except at Green Mountain, the island appears at first sight to be utterly barren. A close examination, however, will detect some faint beginnings of vegetation. A prickly gray-green poppy, with a delicate flower of a bright yellow, spots some localities with little dots of color; and here and there may be seen a low bush of acacia, with its feathery foliage of tender green lighted up by fluffy spheres of yellow blossoms, and hung with pendant seed-pods of polished brown. Near the foot of one of the brown hills of ash and tufa is a lonely palm tree, fighting for its life in the midst of the arid desolation. This tree might well stand as the original of that made immortal in song by Heine's poem, "The Pine and the Palm." At any rate, his "burning ledge of rock" was not half so burning as the fire-and-sun-scorched hill on which this poor tree struggles for existence with a courage which seems so human as to be pathetic. Year after year it has stood there, its crown of frond-like leaves pushed out of all symmetry by the steady pressure of the trade wind, and only at long intervals refreshed by the blessed baptism of a pouring shower. Environment is an important factor in palm, as well as human, life.

Most of the peaks on the island are quite regular in outline. Some are perfectly pyramidal in form; many have smoothly rounded tops, and others again have such shape and appearance as would result from the bursting of a huge bubble of mud, lava, and cinder when puffed up to the limit of expansion, the wind driving all the lighter material to the leeward, leaving the windward side of the crater much lower than the other. Green Mountain is the one place on Ascension where there is an obvious possibility for vegetable life; all the rest of the island looks as if no drop of rain had cooled the fervid cinder for a hundred years.

The landing-place, called "Tartar Stairs," is at a flight of steep stone steps, alongside of which hang a couple of ropes suspended from iron bars projecting overhead. In landing, the boat is brought as near the stairs as the breakers will permit, one of the ropes is swung out and caught, and when the wave lifts the boat to the proper level, a spring is made for the steps, and quite frequently a landing is effected with dry, or partially dry, feet. Near the landing are several substantial stone buildings, used for storing naval supplies, and for various other naval purposes; for Ascension is not only an island, it is a ship as well, being borne on her Majesty's Naval Register as the "*Penelope* tender"; and therefore naval discipline rules the island: lights out at ten o'clock; no smoking except at certain times and places; in fact, man-of-war rules are supposed to govern Ascension. I think these rules have been much relaxed of late years.

Georgetown, or "Garrison," as it is always called, consists of a street having one side only. The Captain's office is a two-story building, then come long, one-story cottages with broad verandas, used for officers' quarters; beyond these a large, airy, comfortable hospital, then two or three more cottages and another, smaller hospital, and still further along a cemetery. Every cottage has a little garden in front, separated from the street and each other by pieces of lava, and the space within is covered with glittering white beach sand, shaped into geometrical figures by a broom or scraper. Flowers there are none; but a few broad-leaved plants, such as will best bear the scorching heat of Ascension, are cultivated in tubs and kept alive with difficulty by sedulous watering. The street is sand, the gardens are sand, and when the wind blows, which it always does, the atmosphere is a mixture of air and sand. The superlative of desolation is reached at the cemetery. The graves are dug through ashes, scoriæ, lava, and pumice stone; the mounds, defined by a border of lava blocks, are covered with sand; but no rose, no shrub, nor even the humble grass softens with tender ministry the dark rigidity of the terrible lava. All that loving hands can do is done, but at best it is burying the dead in the slag of a furnace. The road to heaven is, doubtless, as short and direct from the Ascension cemetery as from Greenwood, Mount Auburn, or Forest Hill, but for myself I desire to avoid the horror of a grave scooped in lava and heaped with volcanic cinder.

Captain Napier, the officer in charge of Ascension, gave us every facility in his power for prosecuting the scientific work for which we had called at the island. Buildings in which to swing the pendulum and make magnetic observations were assigned and placed absolutely under the control of the scientific staff; transportation was furnished for the instruments, and also for members of the expedition and officers of the *Pensacola* whenever they wished to explore the island, and permission was also given for capturing as many green turtles as might be needed for use on the ship. Indeed, the ready hospitality shown to us will always be gratefully remembered. One afternoon Captain Napier took Professor Todd and myself to "Wide Awake Fair." This is a place where the Sooty Tern (called Wide Awake by the inhabitants) breeds by thousands. It is an extensive plain, about a mile and a half west of Green Mountain, thinly covered by a vine (*Ipomœa maritima*) which grows to an enormous length. I measured two of them by pacing; one was fifty and the other sixty-two feet long. It is said to bear a purple flower shaped like a morning-glory, but it was not in blossom when we were there. The breeding season was nearly over, yet hundreds of birds, belated in nesting, were sitting. The female lays but one egg, directly on the ground, making no nest at all. Either they are such devoted parents as to brave death in defence of egg or young, or they have little or no fear; for the mother bird remained on her egg until I was within arm's length of her, and then reluctantly flew away, screaming a discordant protest against my intrusion. Young birds in all stages of growth, from little pinches of black, fluffy down, just hatched, to birds sufficiently developed for awkward flight, filled the air or covered the ground. Looking upward, the sky was darkened by a dust of birds; and all the while the ears were deafened by a multitudinous scream in which there were no flashes of grateful silence. Professor Todd caught a young bird which, not heeding the penalties provided for bribery and corruption, offered its most valuable possession for liberty, viz., two small fishes about three inches long, evidently just swallowed. The Professor refused the bribe, but magnanimously restored the bird to freedom.

The contrast between Green Mountain and the other parts of the island is astonishing. The plains and lower peaks look as if they had been dried and burned by centuries of drought, and practically they support no vegetation; but on Green Mountain the growth is luxuriant and vigorous, resembling a rich, tropical jungle. This is due to the cloud of which I have spoken, bringing a dense mist nearly every day, and frequent showers, which do not reach the other parts of the island. Water being the great want here, every effort has been made to collect and store as much as possible of the rainfall. A system of pipes and tanks conveys the precious fluid from the mountain to "Garrison." At the time of our visit the tanks contained a six months' supply for the island.

One experiment by which it was attempted to increase the amount of water was so original as to deserve mention. Some genius, deeming a cloud to be a reservoir of water, a kind of floating pond as it were, imagined that to make it rain at any time nothing more was necessary than to break a hole in the bottom of this reservoir, and the rain would come. He may have had in his mind a dim recollection of some one in America who tried a somewhat similar experiment, to bring electricity from the clouds by means of a kite. Be that as it may, his plan was this: To raise into the cloud a kite with a chain attached, then the electricity in the cloud would run down the chain, making, as it flashed downward, a hole through the bottom of the cloud-reservoir, and this lightning-rent orifice would afford a channel or sluice-way for any amount of water. Q. E. D. The chain which was actually procured for this purpose is still on the mountain. The links are about two and a half inches long made of half-inch iron, and it would probably weigh fifteen pounds to the yard. It is said that the experiment was considered so dangerous that permission would not be given for a trial. Whether the fear was of water or lightning, I did not learn.

We found a very interesting character in the trapper who acted as our guide to Crystal Bay. He is a Scotchman by birth, and bears the name of Robert Burns, the poet, and claims to be of the same family. It was a pleasant experience to hear him repeat Burns's poetry with the real Scotch accent. He is employed at Ascension as a trapper of vermin, and he gave me the prices which he is paid for destroying the different kinds. For each rat he gets a half-penny; for one hundred crabs one shilling and sixpence; for one cat one shilling and sixpence. He brings in the rat's tail, the two large claws of the crab, and the scalp of the cat with the two ears attached, as proof of their destruction. The cats are the ordinary domestic cat run wild. On our walk to Crystal Bay he carried our lunch in a little pouch slung over his shoulder, and when we sat down to eat it, in taking out the lunch he brought out at the same dip a handful of rats' tails which he had collected from his traps, and was taking in to the office for the bounty. But an eight-mile walk over lava and cinder tends to remove any squeamishness which might be felt under other circumstances by such a mixing of

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lunch and rats' tails, and any foreign flavor which our sandwiches may have contracted was not heeded.

Our work at Ascension being completed, the *Pensacola* weighed anchor at half-past one on Tuesday, April 8, and turned her bow towards far-away Barbados. E. J. Loomis.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

London, May, 1890.

I have already explained that this year the Grosvenor is the best of the three great London art exhibitions. Between the Royal Academy and the New Gallery there is but little choice to be made. Both contain some really good work and much honest effort, but each is hopelessly uninteresting as a whole. The good work does not stand out with any great prominence—it does not assert itself; you have to look for it. No note of originality is struck; no new man comes to the fore. The general average at the Academy is perhaps somewhat higher than it has been for the last few years, but there are not so many pictures of importance as even in last spring's very poor show. The New Gallery seems to be fast losing the little character it had in the beginning of its short career. An offshoot from the Grosvenor, it at first promised to inherit the traditions of the æsthetic, Neo-Tuscan, or whatever it may be called, school which gave the old Grosvenor its fame. But in the present exhibition spurious mediævalism occupies but limited space, and Mr. Burne-Jones, its chief exponent, sends only sketches and studies for important pictures exhibited elsewhere. In both galleries, as at the Grosvenor, the best work is to be found among the landscapes. Indeed, nothing is more striking and significant in the art world this year than the unusually good showing made by the landscape-painters.

At the Royal Academy, however, there is one redeeming feature, of which the New Gallery cannot boast, though it must also be admitted that to the Academy there is always one serious drawback which other exhibitions are spared. But this drawback, the monopoly of the best places on the wall by Academicians and Associates, no matter how atrocious their work, is no new thing, and of late the evil has perhaps been less than in the past, owing to the strenuous outcry raised against it. But it necessarily detracts from the general effect of the show when such childish and obsolete compositions as those of Mr. Faed, such pretentious incompetencies as the productions of Mr. Sant, such showy and vulgar performances as the canvases of Mr. Fildes or Mr. Woods (to mention no others), are hung on the line, while infinitely better things are skied out of sight.

However, it is pleasanter to dwell upon what is good, and the commonplaceness of the painting is in a measure redeemed by the excellence of the sculpture. The vast stride in advance which English sculptors have been making since the days when Alfred Stevens, neglected and unappreciated as he was, first sought to raise the art from the abyss of mediocrity into which it had sunk in England, is very marked. It is shown, in the first place, in the decidedly high average reached in the two rooms devoted to sculpture. The old characterless conventionalities that linger, as if to point the difference, seem quite out of place, whereas at one time it was the good work that was the exception. In almost all the portrait busts there is vigor and individuality, in expression of character as well as in the means employed to obtain it. It is evident that sculptors at least are endeavoring to use their own eyes, and to preserve their own individuality in one of the most conventional of the arts.

This progress is to be seen not merely in the higher general average attained, but in the excellence of single works. Most conspicuous among these is Mr. Onslow Ford's statue of Gordon on his camel. It is enormous, quite life-size; the pose is natural in its quiet dignity, the modelling is vigorous, and the great mass of detail, in Gordon's uniform and the saddle and trappings of the camel, are rendered with almost photographic accuracy. Indeed, one at first is inclined to question such close and minute attention to details; but a little study shows how right the artist was, and how, without the hanging tassels and paraphernalia, the height and gawkiness of the animal would have been unpleasantly accentuated. This is the statue which has been erected in bronze at Chatham by the Corps of Royal Engineers, and upon which Mr. Ford has been at work for the last two or three years. A little, carefully modelled, study for the camel, which he made at the Zoo, is now in the New Gallery. In addition to this stupendous piece of work, he also shows two charming figures in bronze, destined, I believe, for some Indian potentate—one of "Music," a female figure almost nude, with winged head and the lyre in her hand; the other of "Peace," also nude, the lines of the figure delightfully graceful, the pose unaffected, as she holds in one uplifted hand one of her emblems, the dove, in the other, the palm.

Mr. Alfred Gilbert, unfortunately, is not represented. Mr. Thornycroft has nothing of much importance, though his "Mirror," a relief in marble, is interesting as his diploma work, henceforth to be seen in the permanent gallery at the Royal Academy, which so few people ever visit, and his two medallion portraits are characterized by his usual refinement and exquisite but vigorous modelling.

Of outsiders, Mr. Harry Bates is the most prominent. He has a very beautiful Pandora, kneeling with head bent over the casket in her hands. The statue is delightfully thought out; the pose altogether charming, showing as it does the lovely curve of her rounded back. There is great restraint and artistic feeling in his treatment of the face and its expression, and the detail on the casket is studied with the greatest care. The subject could scarcely be rendered more satisfactorily. But perhaps Mr. Bates is even happier in a large relief for a London church, a dead Christ with an angel at his head and another at his feet. There is no one to-day who understands better the decorative treatment of figures, the value of long, flowing lines, and the graceful filling of a required space. The draperies of the Christ stretch in beautiful lines between the two angels, who lean devoutly over him so that their wings naturally curve as gracefully as the back of Pandora, and fit, without the least violence of composition, into the two ends of the long panel. Mr. Bates's mastery as a decorator is also shown in his "Story of Psyche" at the New Gallery, in which the same beauty of line and unaffectedness of arrangement are found. Mr. John Donoghue has sent to the Royal Academy his "Young Sophocles," about which so much has been already said in America that it would be more than useless to describe it again. Mr. George G. Frampton has one or two bas-reliefs in which there is something of the feeling of the Cinquecento Florentines, and a large "Angel of Death"; but it is impossible to speak at length of all the good work in these two galleries.

In the other rooms, while there is really not one picture that stands out with any marked distinction, several cannot be passed over in silence. For example, one always turns with interest to the contributions of Sir Frederick Leighton; for though his color and composition and atmospheric effects are like nothing in nature, though his draperies always hang in the same conventional folds, and he does not even attempt to express different textures, his draughtsmanship is scholarly, his painting has style, and, accepted frankly as decoration, has more good points than the work of almost any one of his fellow-Academicians. Of his three pictures this year, the finest unquestionably is the "Bath of Psyche," a study of the nude. The well-drawn, graceful Psyche stands on the marble floor just at the edge of the bath, her fair white body in strong relief against a purple curtain, above which one sees a stretch of deep blue sky and long white cloud-rifts. The color is rich, and the decorative effect of the whole is heightened—legitimately, I think—by the frame which encloses the picture between two pillars of the same architectural construction as those painted in it. This has been bought by the trustees of the Chantrey Bequest, and hereafter will hang at South Kensington in that collection which will probably form the neucleus of the English Luxembourg, of which Sir Frederick proved himself a strong advocate by his speech at the Royal Academy banquet. Mr. Alma-Tadema has no large picture. His most important at the Royal Academy is the "Frigidarium," with a Roman lady of the time of Hadrian, in a marvellously embroidered robe, marvellously painted, making her toilet by the help of a slave in her chlamys. Beyond, one looks to the usual Tademesque marble halls and stretch of blue sky. But prettier than this is a little "Eloquent Silence" at the New Gallery, in which, to the well-known marble seat and figures and sunny landscape for background, is added a new beauty in a great purple clematis which scatters its petals over the seated man and woman, and makes a rich mass of color in the centre of the composition. It seems, however, that the new beauty is an archæological blemish. For it is said—with how much truth I am not botanist enough to know—that the flower which really gives the picture its charm is the *Clematis Jackmanni*, a cross between the wild English variety and the white-flowered plant of China, and only introduced to the world within the last quarter of a century. For my part, I do not regret the mistake; Mr. Tadema has seldom produced a finer piece of color. But when all is said, there is a tiresome monotony in his pictures of a life he does not know; and his tiny portrait of Miss McWhirter, with its exquisite suggestion of detail, at the New Gallery, and his head of Mr. Waterlow, strong in character, even if the modelling is somewhat flat, at the Royal Academy, make one wish he would concern himself oftener with the things and people he does see and know.

Of other Academicians and Associates, none show anything notable except Mr. Hook, whose work this year is unusually good. Of Sir John Millais the less said nowadays the better. Mr. Watts is seen at his worst in both galleries. Mr. Burne-Jones has nothing in the Royal Academy, being contented with an exhibition all to himself on Bond Street. Mr. Frank Dicksee occupies the chief place of honor with a "Redemption of Tannhäuser," the merits of which are literary rather than artistic.

Of the men for whom one looks in the Academy, but who have not yet been elected to its membership, Mr. Sargent still holds his own, though he has painted better portraits. One is

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fine chiefly for its rich color, and it is instructive to compare his strong yet refined and restrained treatment of the lilac gown of his sitter with the brutal rendering of very much the same subject by Mr. Luke Fildes in a portrait which is simply a triumph of vulgarity. By such comparisons one becomes doubly appreciative of the subtleties and refinement of Mr. Sargent's methods. Even when one questions his success, one is forced to admit his originality; and his other canvas, which shows an apparently very ill-tempered lady in fur cape and soft-felt tennis hat standing on the lawn in front of an old ivy-covered brick mansion, commands interest, though I am not sure that personally I like it. On the other hand, I am quite certain that I do not like his portrait of Mrs. Comyns Carr at the New Gallery; it is clever, and a good piece of flesh painting, but it looks like a sketch made in the Morgue, and one wonders at the courage of the lady in allowing it to be hung. Here he has also a large landscape called "Ightham Mote," very broadly and simply painted, while the figures playing bowls in the foreground are wonderfully put in.

Three other Americans are to the fore at the Academy: Mr. Edwin A. Abbey, who, unless I am very much mistaken, makes his first appearance as an oil painter in "Mayday-Morning," a study of early morning light softly diffused over an old garden, in which two of Mr. Abbey's delightful figures, a man and girl in seventeenth-century dress, are tripping along, hand in hand, in front of a high wall, over which the pink and white flowers of a blossoming cherry droop in rich profusion—the whole composition filled with the spirit of Herrick; Mr. Frank D. Millet, who has one of his quiet, charming, white-panelled, eighteenth-century rooms, where two girls are sitting at the tea-table, which, with its old silver and china and fair white cloth, is unusually well rendered; and Mr. Dannat, who shows a large "Study in Red," very cleverly managed, about which I would say more if it were not that I believe it has already been seen at the Salon.

Mr. Stanhope-Forbes, in a very carefully studied but almost too black auction sale ("By Order of the Court"), in a cottage interior, and Mr. Adrian Stokes, in another of his luminous sketches of sea and sky, are the most successful of the Newlynites. Of men who belong to no school or clique, conspicuous are Mr. Albert Moore, in a fine piece of decoration in which he has carried out a harmonious scheme of yellow, and treated decoratively five not overdelicate or attractive female figures; Mr. John M. Swan, whose exquisite little idyl of a "Piping Fisher Boy," his young naked body stretched out on a cool gray rock in a calm blue sea, is so tiny that it could be easily overlooked, and whose big "Lioness and her Cubs" is too sombre in tone; and Mr. William Logsdail, whose "Ninth of November," with the Lord Mayor's procession starting from the Mansion House, will probably excite more interest than anything else in the show. To future generations it will have the historical value that many Bellinis and Carpaccios have for us; but it is to be hoped that time will kindly soften and subdue its glaring, vulgar color, which now more than counterbalances its decided cleverness. The Lord Mayor's procession, it is true, is not in itself a very artistic pageant, even when directed by an artist; but, for all that, it is strikingly picturesque, the London atmosphere refining its too gaudy details, making even its crude sumptuousness beautiful. But the London fog and mist is just the one thing which Mr. Logsdail, clever as he is, has not yet been able to give us.

I will say nothing about the landscapes, because the best are by men who have done still better in the work they exhibit at the Grosvenor, unless I except Mr. Alfred Parsons, in a fine "Bend of the Avon," in which he is particularly successful in rendering the soft English atmospheric effects which Mr. Logsdail cannot understand; and Mr. R. Noble, whose sombre classical landscapes are rich and impressive, despite their lack of realism.

In the water-color room little need detain one save an impression of "Arabs Returning from a Raid," by Mr. Arthur Melville, who can, better than most men, express a great deal by the simplest means; while in the black-and-white room the best thing is Mr. Hole's etching after Millet's "Wood-Sawyers," which is one of the very finest reproductive etchings ever made, but which was published some two or three months ago, and has probably long before this been seen and duly admired and praised in New York.

Correspondence.

COLIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I should be glad to know whether the ultimate source of the name *colin*, applied to the common partridge or bob-white of the United States, has been investigated and settled by any one in America, and particularly whether there is any reason to conclude that it is a native Mexican or Indian name. Prof. A. Newton has pointed out to me that European acquaintance with the name appears to be due to Francisco Hernandez, the naturalist and physician sent by Philip II. to describe the natural productions of Spanish America. The result of his investigations was his 'Nova Plantarum, Animalium, et Mineralium Mexicanorum Historia,' published at Rome in 1648 and 1651. In the latter edition the *colin* is treated at pp. 22 and 42, and the fuller name *acolin* is mentioned at p. 16. According to Watt's 'Bibliotheca,' "this work had originally been published in the Spanish language, at Mexico, under the name and care of Francis Ximenes." This Mexican edition I have not seen; but it is probably the source of earlier European references to the *acolin* or *colin* (unless these were taken from Hernandez's own MSS.). The 'Joannis Eusebii Nierembergii Historia Naturalis' (Antverpiæ, 1635) has at p. 232 "Coturnices vocabat Noua Hispania *colin*, quorum genera ex Francisco Hernando dabo," and at p. 214, "Vocatur acolin quædam auis fusca Mexicani lacus." From these sources the *acolin* or *colin* became known to Francis Willoghby and his translator John Ray, who has (Eng. ed. 1678, pp. 387, 393), "A certain brown Bird of the Lake of Mexico is called *acolin* because it is of the bigness of a Quail," "Those of New Spain call Quails *colin*," "Acolin is of the bigness of a Stare," etc. From Ray it passed to later ornithologists, and I suppose into use in the North American colonies and the United States.

Buffon has also a long dissertation on "*Colins*." Littré, in his Dictionary, treated the word as French, and explained it as "nom propre, donné à un animal." But when we turn to Cotgrave, 1611, we find two words, thus distinguished, (1) "*colin*, collin, a proper name (and a derivative of Nicholas); also a Sea-cob or Gull"; (2) "*collin*, a long-beaked riuer-fowle of a beautiful grayish colour." I do not know whether the latter can be identified with the *acolin* of the Lake of Mexico (which Prof. Newton thinks may be *Gallinula galeata*); but I see no ground whatever for thinking that the French *colin*, a sea-gull, is the same as the Mexican word. No hint of the name being French occurs in the early authorities.

An American correspondent informs me that *acolin* is still the Spanish-American name of the bob-white, or of cognate species, and that the word is believed to be of Mexican-Indian origin. I shall be grateful for any *facts* bearing on the latter point; and, as time presses, I ask communications to be made to me direct, addressed Dr. Murray, Oxford, England. This will not prevent the subject being discussed also in the *Nation*. Would that some competent American scholar would take up the subject of the origin and history of such words, and make it his own! It is disappointing when one turns to American sources for information about American words, and finds only a repetition of the statements, often imperfect or erroneous, of European writers.

J. A. H. Murray.

Oxford, May 26, 1890.

P. S.—Since writing my appeal for information as to the alleged Mexican origin of this bird-name, I have, through the kindness of Prof. A. Newton, acquired a clearer notion of the relation of the names *colin* and *acolin* in Hernandez, Nieremberg, and Willoghby. They were not applied to the same bird, *colin* being the name of the "quail," *i. e.*, of the species of *Ortyx* and allied genera, while *acolin* was a water-bird, "quædam auis fusca Mexicani lacus" (probably *Gallinula galeata*), but it was so called from being of the same size as the "quail" or *colin*—"a coturnicis magnitudine vocatur *acolin*," or, as Willoghby translates, "a certain brown Bird of the Lake of *Mexico* is called *acolin* because it is of the bigness of a Quail." . . . "Those of New Spain call Quails *colin*." We are therefore entitled to assume that the name *acolin* was formed upon *colin*. Now, in the Nahuatl or Mexican language, water is *atl*, and in composition, as in all words of this form, *-tl* was dropped, leaving *a-* = water-; thus *otli* way, *a-otl* water-way, canal; similarly *colin* quail, *a-colin* water-quail. The fact that the word was thus, in combination, treated as a native word, greatly confirms the supposition that *colin* was the genuine native name, which the researches of Hernandez thus first made known to European naturalists.

The French name *colin*, given to a sea-gull, occurs in Belon, 'Hist. Nat. Oyseaux,' 1555, p. 167; but it has evidently no connection whatever with the Mexican word, and Cotgrave, in 1611, was well informed in making two distinct entries for the two words, which later dictionaries have so unfortunately muddled up, by attributing to the American *colin* a French derivation.

J. A. H. M.

Oxford, May 28, 1890.

THE ETYMOLOGY OF COCKNEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the discussion of the etymology of *cockney*, noticed in your issue of May 29, the position of the 'Century Dictionary' in regard to that word has been misrepresented. Dr. Murray, in his first letter to the *Academy*, affirms that the 'Century Dictionary' advances the derivation of *cockney* from an O. F. **coquiné*, M. L. **coquinatus*, as certain, and insinuates that this view is a new one, peculiar to that work. This is false. Among several other suggested etymologies of the word, the one in question is mentioned, with the remark that, though

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"phonetically satisfactory," it is "*historically unsupported.*" The italicized words Dr. Murray omits to quote, but they are essential to a correct statement of the position of the American book. The 'Century Dictionary' does not advance this etymology as its own, does not assert it to be true, and, in what it does affirm about it, is entirely within the limits of fact.

In, apparently, ascribing this etymology to the 'Century Dictionary,' Dr. Murray cannot be so ignorant as he allows himself to appear. In the glossarial index of 'Piers the Plowman,' edited 1886 by Prof. W. W. Skeat, is the following statement: "*Cokeneyes, pl.* scullions, a. 7,272. I have now no doubt at all that this difficult word (whence mod. E. *cockney*) answers to an O. F. *coquiné*=Low Lat. *coquinatus*, from *coquinare*, to cook, serve as scullion, a derivative of Lat. *coquina*," etc. The suggestion of this etymology did not originate with Prof. Skeat; but as it is positively asserted by him (after having been tentatively advanced in the supplement to his 'Etymological Dictionary'), and as it is not asserted at all by the 'Century Dictionary,' it is a natural inference that Dr. Murray's criticisms have been intentionally misdirected.—Very respectfully,

CHARLES P. G. SCOTT.

NEW YORK, June 3.

A MISTAKE ACKNOWLEDGED, ETC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The statement that *to fear*, in the sense of 'to fear for,' has been overlooked by the lexicographers is erroneous; and Mr. W. H. Johnson justly pulls me up for having made it. Referring to my rough note on the point, I find that I relied on it without observing that it bore, dimly pencilled, the letters D. V., a consecrated symbol which I am wont to secularize by making it stand for the very kitcheny Latin *dictionaria vide*. The search which I thought was completed had been left incomplete. From my mishap the practical lesson may be deduced, that there is nothing like ink.

That the use in question of *to fear* is, as Dr. Webster's editors mark it, "rare," is, however, almost disproved by Shakespeare alone. Besides the quotations for it which he furnishes, many others, presumably, lie hidden in corners of our literature seldom visited. Such are the following:

"Than Arthur *fered* his horse, lest that the lyon sholde have slayne hym." Lord Berners, *Arthur of Little Britain* (about 1530), p. 213 (ed. 1814).

"They both maruayled what minde he had so to do, and also *feared* their owne partes, least he woulde bring them into lyke daunger." T. Key (before 1547), *Translation of Erasmus's Paraphrase* (1548), *Mark*, fol. 71*v*.

"The carefull hen, *fearing* her chickens, dothe clocke them together." Anon., *ibid.*, *Matthew*, fol. 109*v*.

"The City whose ruine wee *feared* wee did not so much as find to be moved." Sir Robert Le Grys, *Velleius Paterculus his Romane Historie* (1632), p. 409.

"The Physician *fears* his Life; but I'm in more fear of his Soul." Sir Roger L'Estrange, *Twenty Select Colloquies*, etc. (1680), p. 111.

It is not, however, through the obsolete idiom just instanced that the old *afraid of*, and *afeard of*, as equivalent to 'afraid for,' is to be explained. Here the peculiarity is in *of*, which, in former days, denoted relation much more variously than is now the case. For instance, as late as 1628, the Rev. John Doughty could speak of "sinne *of* the holy ghost." Subjoined are some quotations for *afraid of* and *afeard of* in an acceptation which was long familiar:

"And, whan the Duke of Bygor sawe that, he was *afrayed of* hym selfe, and so toke his hors, and fledde his way." Lord Berners, *Arthur of Little Britain* (about 1530), p. 273 (ed. 1814).

"For they wer *afearde of* theyr lyfe." Anon., *Translation of Erasmus's Paraphrase* (1548), *Matthew*, fol. 88*v*.

"Iesus therefore tarryed here with his fewe disciples, whiche, though they wer wofully *afeard of* theimselfes also, yet durst thei not forsake their Lorde." Anon., *ibid.*, *John*, fol. 81*r*.

"My mind is yet very much troubled about my Lord of Sandwich's health, which I am *afeard of*." Samuel Pepys (1661), *Diary and Correspondence* (ed. 1875), vol. i., p. 336.

"This evening Mr. Povy tells me that my Lord Sandwich is, this day, so ill that he is much *afeard of* him." *Id.* (1663), *ibid.*, vol. ii., p. 164.

"Mathew ill; we were *afraid of* him, & pray'd," etc. Rev. Philip Henry (1667), *Diaries and Letters* (1882), p. 197.

"The Physician is afraid for his body; but I am more *afraid of* his soul." "Why, but there is no cause why the Ape should be *afraid of* himself for the Snail." H. M., *Colloquies of Erasmus* (1671), pp. 122, 513.

As after past participles generally, so, after *affrayed* or *afraid* and *afeard*, *of* had also the sense of 'by'; and, hence, the current *afraid of*, historically considered, is one with "alarmed by." The vulgar *frightened of* has, therefore, the support of ancient analogy.

In "he goes in *fear of his life*," where *of* signifies 'for,' we have another survival of a venerable locution. But we no longer say, with our ancestors:

"The burgesses of the towne were in great *feare of their* lyues, *wyues, and chyldren.*" Lord Berners, *Translations of Froissart* (1523), vol. i., p. 146 (ed. 1812).

"He [the Pope] blamed those times for being so full of troubles, praising former Ages, when the Popes might live quietly, not being in *fear of their Authority.*" Sir Nathanael Brent, Translation of *Hist. Council of Trent* (1616), p. 364 (ed. 1676).

To return to the disused *to fear*, 'to fear for,' a similar use of to *dread*, 'to be apprehensive on account of,' though hardly to be recognized as English, is perhaps worth exemplifying:

"It is not my fear of the confiscation of our church property, from this example in France, that I *dread*, though I think this would be no trifling evil." Edmund Burke, *Reflections on the Revolution in France* (1790), p. 227 (2nd ed.).

"My excuse was, that I *dreaded* the safety of my father and Jane." Anon., *Cicely, or the Rose of Raby* (1795), vol. 1, p. 76.

Though Burke generally expressed himself admirably well, it could readily be shown that, occasionally, as above, he expressed himself quite otherwise.

As to vulgarisms like "I sleep *home*," Mr. Johnson wishes me to point out their occurrence in American literature of established repute. Equally in American books and in English it would, I apprehend, be no easy matter to discover them, except where it is intended to represent the very diction of the heedless or ignorant. My critic's compliment that I am "usually careful" is sustained, at least, by my having spoken, with respect to the expressions in dispute, of what, as I put it, we "hear," not of what we read; and, consequently, I have committed myself to no charge justifying his requisition for written evidence. Americans in plenty, of fair education and good social position, will say "I sleep *home*," or the like; whereas, in England, only the humblest will say so. Contrariwise, while one is surprised to hear, for example, "I *done* it," from any Americans but the most illiterate, one may often hear it, in England, from persons not very far below the rank of gentlemen. At the same time, one must, ordinarily, in England, go far lower down than to such persons, to meet with "he is not hurt *any*," "I slept *none* all night," and "it blows *some*,"—solecisms which I have again and again heard, among our countrymen, from graduates of colleges.—Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, May 15, 1890.

A REPUBLICAN CONFESSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Speaker Reed, at a dinner of the Home Market Club in this city on May 31, undertook the defence, or rather the glorification, of the Republican party in its relation to the tariff, and this is the way he did it:

"We have just passed through the House of Representatives a tariff bill, and we passed it with a unanimity of action on the part of the Republicans which is without parallel in the history of the country. And yet that fact had its origin away back. It is that on the Committee of Ways and Means was thoroughly represented every *great* interest of this great country; and if you will look at the list of names, you see that they stretch from one end of the country to the other, from the Atlantic to the Pacific coast, leaving out no *great* interest which the Republican party desired to preserve, and therefore no *great* interest of the country at large."

In the old novels we read of words interlined in a letter with lemon juice, which, being brought out by exposure to the heat, entirely change the meaning. It needs the italics which I have put in to give the full significance of this delicious bit of cynicism. In plain English it says that every interest powerful enough to compel consideration has received it. One great interest, indeed, Mr. Reed might and ought to have excepted, namely, that of some forty or fifty millions of units who pay for the privileges given to the other great interests, just as in the Middle Ages the merchant or traveller paid toll to every feudal baron who pounced down from his castle.

If he was as frank as he assumes to be, Mr. Reed would say that this was a "negligeable quantity," an interest which the Republican party does not care to preserve, as it has no representative in Congress and no influence whatever in the committee-rooms. The Republican party, in the wisdom of its generation, fully understands the value of the friendship of the Mammon of unrighteousness, and the force of the text, "Why do the heathen so furiously rage together, and the people imagine a vain thing?" If the Democratic party, as its name implies, seeks to base its power on the mass of the nation, it will turn aside from the idle conflict of the committee-rooms, and bend its strength towards setting up in Congress a representative of the nation who, with the millions behind him, shall wield a lash powerful enough to send back the fierce beasts of prey growling and snarling to their dens.

In the Middle Ages this work was done by a Louis XI., a Richelieu, a Ferdinand, a Peter the Great, a Henry VIII. Parliamentary government in Great Britain has done it through an Earl Grey, a Sir Robert Peel, and a Gladstone, and one may hope that its victories are not yet at an end. Sooner or later, and in one way or the other, it will have to be done in this country; and the solution of this problem will be the most interesting feature in the next century of the history of our Government.

G. B.

BOSTON, June 7, 1890.

CAMEL'S-HAIR TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I own a camel. I bought her of Barnum. I want her hair protected. My neighbors tell me the McKinley bill does it. Therefore I'm for the McKinley bill. As I look at

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it, a camel is as good as a sheep. The hair of the camel has as much right to be protected in this country as the wool of the sheep. If not, why not? One is as constitutional as the other. I'm for the McKinley bill, I say. It protects my camel's hair against the pauper-labor camel's hair of other countries. If it be objected by Delano and his sheep-raisers that there are not as many camels in this country as sheep, I admit it, but reply that there may be, perhaps, if we will adequately protect them. Why not establish here the camel-raising industry, as we are trying, by the McKinley bill, to establish tin-plate manufactories? Indeed, the argument is all on the side of the camel, for, as I understand it, there is not a single tin-plate manufactory in the land, while I have one camel to start with. In the name of my infant industry, I ask to be protected.

To the objection that our climate is not adapted to the raising of camels, I reply that it may be modified and made so by the construction of vast Government-made conservatories to shelter them in wintry weather, the construction of which would furnish employment to many thousands of idle workingmen in the country. Certainly there is sand, in almost every State of the Union, for camels to walk on, water to drink, and grass to eat, unless it be *in the Dakotas*, and they need not raise them there.

Now, Mr. Editor, I claim to be a true American. I believe in the great Republican-American idea of protection—protection to everybody who wants it, and, of course, is willing to pay something to promote party elections for it. The Government ought not only to put a high tariff on all foreign and pauper-labor camel's hair, as it does on wool, but should offer a bounty on home-grown hair, just as McKinley's bill does on sugar. This would foster this infant industry, raise the wages of the laboring man, make us, as a nation, gloriously independent of the effete nations of the East, keep our money at home, give the lie to that "dismal science" that tells us to sell in the highest and buy in the lowest market, and carry out to its legitimate result our great American idea of protection. Then could we join with our Caledonian brothers, with a new spirit and significance, in their national song,

"The camels are coming," etc.

Mr. Editor, I am a poor man, but I love my country and want to raise the wages of the workingman. I cannot afford to hire anybody to lobby for me at Washington. I hear you are violently opposed to British free trade and a warm advocate of the McKinley bill. You must, therefore, have a deep sympathy for all such infant industries as mine. Is it too much to ask you to write Maj. McKinley and ask him to put a still higher tariff (it now stands in his bill only about 77 per cent., I believe) on the pauper-labor camel's hair with which our foreign enemies are trying to flood this country? Please be sure, also, to tell him that I was in the Union army.—Yours, for a consistent protection, W. H. SPENCER.

195 BROADWAY, PROVIDENCE, R. I., June 6, 1890.

FORT TICONDEROGA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an article, "English and Americans," in the May *Fortnightly*, Mr. W. Morton Fullerton says (p. 734): "Fort Ticonderoga still stands, the most imposing military ruin in America, and across its western barracks the sun sets full upon its brown and crumbling stones, now adorned with a truly nineteenth-century legend in the staring white letters of somebody's 'Stove Polish.'"

It has been many years since I saw Ticonderoga, and I do not know if this statement is true; but if true, ought not the *Nation* to give voice to the sense of outrage which all who have any feeling for the country's history must experience at this monstrous and impudent desecration? The firm that would employ such means of advertising ought to be publicly knouted.—Very truly yours, W. H. B.

BALTIMORE, May 19, 1890.

[We have delayed printing the above letter till we could make the necessary inquiry, with this result: So much of the old walls of the fort as a certain family of this city spared after being checked in its work of converting the whole into quicklime, is undefaced by any advertisement. It is suggested to us that what Mr. Fullerton saw, or reports, is painted on the rocky side of old Mt. Defiance, visible from the railway between the lakes. A number of advertisements here mar the scenery in a disgusting manner.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

LONGMANS, GREEN & Co. of Paternoster Row, London, and of 15 East Sixteenth Street, New York, are the second oldest publishing-house in England, dating from 1726, when the first Longman succeeded to the business of William Taylor (who had made his money as the original publisher of 'Robinson Crusoe'). In 1711, fifteen years before the first Longman acquired the house in Paternoster Row on the site of which his descendants still have their place of business, the first Rivington succeeded to the trade of Richard Chiswell, and from that day to this the Rivingtons have been London publishers; but now the news comes that they are about to retire, having sold out absolutely to the Longmans. Thus it happens that of two publishing-houses which have existed side by side in the same city for more than a century and a-half, the younger now absorbs the elder. Both houses have had a connection with America: in 1760 James Rivington came over, and in Philadelphia started the *Royal Gazette*, which was removed to New York during the Revolution; and all through the last century the dealings of the Longmans with the American colonies formed a large part of their business. Within the past few years they have followed the example of the Routledges, Macmillans, and Cassells, and opened a branch in New York.

Mr. F. Marion Crawford's 'A Cigarette Maker's Romance' is set down for publication in July by Macmillan & Co.

The Cassell Publishing Co. will bring out 'Society as I Have Found It,' by Ward McAllister; 'Scouting for Stanley in East Africa,' by Thomas Stevens; and 'Vengeance Is Mine,' a novel.

A new novel by Marion Harland, 'With the Best Intentions,' will appear at an early date with the imprint of Charles Scribner's Sons.

An authorized American edition of 'Lux Mundi' is announced by the John W. Lovell Co.

Estes & Lauriat, Boston, have in press a 'Popular Natural History,' by Prof. J. S. Kingsley, of the University of Nebraska, in two volumes thickly illustrated.

Editions of three of Molière's comedies, and 'A Compendious French Grammar,' by Prof. A. H. Edgren, are in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

'H. M. Stanley,' by A. Montefiore (F. H. Revell), is a readable account of the great explorer's travels compiled from his published works and recent letters. To many readers the first few pages, relating to his birth and early career before undertaking the search for Livingstone, will doubtless prove a surprise. The book has several maps, but on such a scale that it will be somewhat difficult to trace his various routes across the Dark Continent. Very similar in character and in diction, as it is derived from the same sources, is 'Stanley' (London: E. Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). It is more profusely illustrated than the preceding work, and the maps, being larger, are possibly more serviceable.

Prof. Masson's seventh volume in his 'Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey' (Macmillan) groups together sundry "historical essays and researches," including "The Casuistry of Meals"; the futile castigation of Josephus in the matter of the Essenes; three papers on Greece under the Romans, in revolt against the Turks, and in her modern state; the revolt of the Tartars; and Ceylon. To the larger part of this the name historical would now be dubiously conceded, but the literary quality has not been impaired by time. The same firm adds to its popular edition of Kingsley 'Two Years Ago.'

The fifth volume of the new edition of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' (Philadelphia: Lippincott) carries the work on to Humanitarians. It has not a few American contributions. Mr. G. P. Lathrop writes of Hawthorne, Gen. J. G. Wilson of Grant, Gen. Lew Wallace of President Harrison, and Mr. Henry George briefly sums up in his autobiographical sketch the doctrines which form the body of his economic agitation. Other noticeable articles are on Glass-staining, by William Morris; Hospitals, by Florence Nightingale; Gulf Stream, by Dr. John Murray; Goethe, by Prof. Dowden; Handel, by Sir George Grove; Hogarth, by Austin Dobson; Homer, by Mr. Gladstone, who uses the first person singular throughout, and, as might have been expected, does not shine in condensed exposition; and Hayti, by Sir Spenser St. John, who anonymously assures his readers that "Sir Spenser St. John's *Hayti, or the Black Republic*, gives a truthful picture, at once melancholy and ludicrous, of the utter savagery that is dominant in the western state," reiterates his charge of cannibalism as a feature of vaudooism, and says "the negro republicans have gone back to the lowest type of African barbarism." This is very amusing. The writer on Harvard University, though an American, has, as respects its founder, apparently got no further than Mr. William Rendle's monograph, to which alone he refers, while thinking John Harvard to have been "probably" born in Southwark in 1607. There are good maps of Great Britain, Georgia, and Holland, and the customary woodcuts in the text.

The volume of the *Century Magazine* that closed with April now comes bound to our table. It begins with Joseph Jefferson's autobiography, which in a way becomes the leading feature as Hay and Nicolay's Lincoln terminates. Mr. Kennan has not ceased to write, and Mr. Cole and Mr. Stillman continue their illustration of the old Italian masters. Mr. Lafarge brings his three letters from Japan. There are three enlightening papers on the Congo. Mr. Bryce is honored with a sketch and a fairly good portrait. Mr. Stockton's latest drollery, "The Merry Chanter," furnishes the lightest element. In thus reviewing the table of contents we grudge the permanence and conspicuity allowed to the late Robert

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Carter's "The Newness," an inaccurate and misleading reminiscence of our period of sociological ferment.

'Echoes from the *Oxford Magazine*' is the title of a prettily printed collection of English undergraduate prose and verse not unlike the American volumes of 'Verses from the *Harvard Advocate*' and 'Pictures from the *Columbia Spectator*.' There is the usual commingling of sophomoric pedantry and scholarly sportiveness; and of course parody is the chief staple. There are humorous imitations of Herodotus and Walt Whitman, of Canning and Praed, of Mr. A. C. Swinburne and Mr. Andrew Lang, and perhaps this "Ballade of Andrew Lang" is the brightest bit of verse in the collection. An American notices the familiarity of the British undergraduate with the measures of Mr. Bret Harte and of "Hans Breitmann" Leland—both American authors now domiciled in Great Britain. A list of signatures is given from which we are able to declare that the gentleman who signs "Q.," and who has recently published a tale called 'The Splendid Spur,' is Mr. A. T. Quiller-Couch, formerly of Trinity College.

M. Eugène Verconsin has just gathered into a volume a second series of his amusing 'Saynètes et Comédies' (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern). M. Verconsin's plays are very popular with French amateurs, and probably no French dramatist of our day is more often acted in French parlors. Nearly all his little plays are in one act. There are a dozen of them in this volume; and the majority are cleanly, clever, and likely to be of service to amateur actors in America who dare venture on a performance in French.

The *Popular Science Monthly* for June presents one of the good results of amateur photography in an article by Mr. David A. Wells on the "Evidences of Glacial Action in Southeastern Connecticut." It contains five excellent reproductions of views of large glacial boulders, so characteristic of New England scenery, and so commonly referred to among its prominent features. While the individual boulders here pictured have perhaps received little notice, it is hardly appropriate to open this article by saying that "remarkable evidences of glacial action in southeastern Connecticut seem thus far to have almost entirely escaped the attention of geologists." Connecticut is well known to be a bouldery State.

The camera has also been well employed by Mr. Frederick H. Chapin of Hartford, Conn., in procuring the striking picture of a cliff-dwellers' "palace" or communal home and stronghold in a side gorge of the Mancos Cañon, Colorado, which forms the frontispiece to the *Photographic Times* for June 6. Oriental antiquity is seldom more impressive.

The *Bulletin* of the Boston Public Library was in April changed to a quarterly, and is henceforth procurable for an annual subscription of one dollar, postage included.

The National Central Library at Florence continues its punctilious catalogue of the Palatine codices in Part I. of Vol. 2. The present instalment is, with rare exceptions, of prose MSS. Among the numerous *novelle*, that numbered 500 may be remarked for the name of one of the characters, Antenore degli *Amerighi*.

Dr. Kerner von Marilaun's 'Plant Life' is continued in Parts 118–123 of 'Allgemeine Naturkunde' (Leipzig, and New York: Westermann), with an array of beautiful colored plates equalling any that have gone before in the progress of this popular work.

From the same American agents we receive the first of twelve parts of an 'Allgemeine Geschichte der Litteratur,' by Gustav Karpeles, from the establishment of Grote in Berlin. It promises a lively description, in broad strokes, of the evolution of the world's literature, with careful selections, and with illustrations abundant and authentic, both in black and white and in color. The opening chapters deal with the Orient.

—Westermann & Co. send us the concluding numbers of vols. xv. and xvi. of 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon,' and the closely following parts 1–8 of a seventeenth volume which will supplement the main work and bring it down to date. These issues are all very rich in colored and other plates and maps, among which we remark for their interest plans and a section of the new Budapest Opera-house. The article on the United States is open to criticism, and bears marks of a purely book knowledge of this country and the character of its inhabitants. The attempt to sum up the New England traits and physique has a very antiquated air, and misses the qualities which have made, and still make, that section the leaven of the whole country. There is a slip in counting New Mexico among the freshly admitted States, and the article on Washington begins by defining it as a Territory, and ends by recording its promotion to Statehood. From the chapter on education it would be inferred that everywhere in this country colored children are provided with separate schools. The historical summary also cannot be praised; it has no grasp of the slavery issue, and refers to no American work on the subject. President Harrison is said to be the son of General Harrison. The letter Z is considerably swelled by the inclusion of words which, before the days of reformed spelling, began with *c*, as *zement*, *zentral* (*Amerika*), *zeremonie*, *zivil* (*prozess*), etc. The Supplement takes up anew all the leading countries, with Germany and her colonies and Brazil conspicuous in the numbers before us; has a chapter on Africa, of course; deals also with Darwinism, railroad-building, the state of European armies, recent European emigration, mountain chains, the ice age (but, though there is a glacial map of the United States, Wright's 'Ice Age in North America' is overlooked), excavations (particularly on the Acropolis), etc. A list of *Denkmäler*, or historic portrait statues in both hemispheres, is curious and novel, but disregards a great many in this country, *e. g.*, John Winthrop in Boston, St. Gaudens's Lincoln, Houdon's Washington and the Clay at Richmond, etc. The defects we have enumerated do not impeach the worth of this standard dictionary, but emphasize once more the desirability of cisatlantic collaboration in kindred enterprises.

—Since our notice of Paul's 'Grundriss der germanischen Philologie,' the work has been making rapid progress. The second instalment of vol. i. takes us well into, but by no means through, the bulky fifth section upon the history of the Germanic languages. Sievers's introductory chapter upon Phonetics is substantially an abbreviation of his well-known treatise on the same subject, with adaptation to the particular purposes of this compendium. Much longer and more important is Kluge's chapter upon the "Vorgeschichte der altgermanischen Dialekte," by which is meant an account of Germanic speech as it was after it had become differentiated from its Indo-European parent, and before it had broken up into separate dialects. Here we have what is not to be found elsewhere, or is to be found only in a large number of widely scattered books and monographs. An enormous mass of literature is judiciously digested, and the present state of scholarship with respect to the various matters discussed is clearly brought to view. Polemic is in the main avoided, the author's plan being to present only the view which he considers sound, but to give always along with the view a full array of the facts upon which it is based. As to the various theories that have been advanced respecting degrees of relationship among the different members of the Indo-European family, Kluge's opinion is practically a *non liquet*. He does not entirely reject the "tree-and-branch" theory of the Indo-European dispersion, but holds that certain facts are best explained by the "wave" theory of continuous dialectal variation. Word-lists are given which would seem at first to indicate a specially close relation between Germanic and Keltic speech; but then other lists are given which by similar reasoning would point to an equally close kinship of the Germans and the Slavs, or of the Germans and the Latins, or even of the Germans and the Hindus. In short, it is made to appear that if we take any one member of the Indo-European family, we shall find that there are certain words which it shares with Germanic speech and with that alone—a state of affairs obviously irreconcilable with the tree-and-branch theory considered as a complete account of the facts. On the whole, Kluge's exposition is well calculated to show how much less clear this whole subject is than it was a few years ago, in the days of Pictet and Schleicher and Max Müller. Even the theory of a European, as opposed to an Asiatic or Aryan, unity, is regarded by him as an unproved and probably unprovable hypothesis. That he is decidedly agnostic with respect to the origin of case-endings, person-endings, etc., need not be stated. We cannot here enter upon a fuller account of Kluge's essay, which will henceforth be indispensable to specialists in this field.

—The remainder of the second instalment is devoted to a short history of Gothic by Sievers, and a longer history of the Scandinavian languages by Noreen. This last is more ample and more technical than the author's article on the "Scandinavian Languages" in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' but less so than his 'Altnordische Grammatik,' of which the first part, dealing with Old Icelandic and Old Norwegian, appeared in 1884. The monograph before us anticipates the second part of the grammar in that it takes cognizance of Old Swedish and Old Danish. The third instalment of vol. i. contains, besides the conclusion of Noreen's contribution, an admirable history of the German language by Behagel. The histories thus far confine themselves to phonetics and morphology, leaving syntax untouched, and do not come down beyond the mediæval period—which makes them at any rate defective as histories, whatever their good points may be. What has been mentioned thus far belongs to vol. i., but we have also received four instalments of vol. ii. The first contains section 6, upon Heroic Saga, by Symons; a history of Gothic literature by Sievers (suggestive of the famous chapter upon "Snakes in Iceland," though Sievers does not hesitate to talk in his monograph on the Gothic language of the "characteristics of classical Gothic"); and finally a history of Icelandic-Norwegian literature by Mogk. A second instalment is mainly devoted to a history of German literature, the text being written for the older period by Kögel, for the later by Vogt. The literary no less than the linguistic histories stop with the Middle Ages. The other instalments received contain a monograph on Germanic Husbandry by Inama-Sternegg, one on Military

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Arrangements (*Kriegswesen*) by Schultz, so short as to be hardly worth inserting, and one on Manners and Customs (*Sitte*) of the Ancient Scandinavians, by Kålund, this last being a translation from the Danish.

SMITH'S RELIGION OF THE SEMITES.—II.

Lectures on the Religion of the Semites. First Series: The Fundamental Institutions. By W. Robertson Smith, M.A., LL.D., Fellow of Christ's College, and Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge. D. Appleton & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. xii, 488.

THE second half of Professor Smith's volume is occupied with the subject of sacrifice. He gives, in fact, a general discussion of the origin, nature, and development of the rite, with illustrations drawn chiefly from the custom of Semitic communities. His view of this question may be called a new one. The prevailing opinion (represented by Tylor, for example) has been that sacrifice in its simplest and most original form was a gift to the gods, either of the nature of tribute, in recognition of their lordship, or a friendly attention designed to avert their anger and secure their favor. Mr. Smith holds, on the other hand, that sacrifice was originally an act of communion between the worshippers and the deity. The grounds for this view he finds in the communal character of early sacrifice, and in certain accessory ideas which show themselves in all primitive communities. Relying on the accessible accounts of savage and semi-civilized life, he insists that as the clan was the primitive social unit, so all worship was the act of the community, in which the individual had a right to share only as a member of the community. The gods, he points out, were kinsmen of their worshippers, and in that character only entitled to honor. Certain widely diffused customs and expressions look in the same direction. The idea which formed the basis of the ancient *lectisternia* was that the god actually partook of the viands prepared; such is the representation in the story of Bel and the Dragon, and such is probably the original conception of the Old Testament expression, "bread of God" (Lev. xxi, 17). Other Biblical expressions which involve the belief that the gods actually consumed food are found in the story of Noah's sacrifice, where it is said that Yahwe "snuelled the sweet savor" (Gen. viii, 21), and was pleased, and in Jotham's fable (Judg. ix, 13), where wine is said to cheer gods and men.

The evidence adduced makes the early communal character of sacrifice reasonably certain. The only doubt is whether Prof. Smith is warranted in concluding that this was absolutely the earliest conception of the rite. It would be better to say that the meagreness of the data makes the question uncertain. It is admitted that many ancient sacrifices were of the nature of gifts to the gods, tribute or thank-offering; one common Hebrew sacrificial term (*minha*) means simply gift. There is nothing in what we know of primitive modes of thought opposed to the supposition that man's primary instinct was to propitiate the supernatural powers by gifts. Further, it is a fair inquiry whether the underlying idea in the communal religious meals in which gods and men took part together, was not the desire to propitiate the deity and secure his assistance. The god might indeed be looked on as the natural companion and friend of his fellow-tribesmen; yet, as he was a tribesman of a very peculiar character, the main desire of men may have been to please him by respectful attentions. In a word, the clan-constitution is not necessarily the oldest form of society. Back of this comparatively developed social organization there was probably a looser form of life in which the predominating religious idea may well have been fear of the supernatural powers and desire to appease them.

There is a related point in which the author seems not to guard himself sufficiently. Early religions, he points out, were joyous in their nature, constantly tending to an orgiastic character. There were feasts in honor of or in company with the gods, in which the comfortable consciousness of the divine friendliness naturally led men to give themselves up to excess. There is a hint of this custom in the Deuteronomic prescription that householders were to celebrate the tithe-festival in Jerusalem, turning the produce into money if they lived far from the city: "and thou shalt bestow the money for whatsoever thy soul desireth, for oxen or for sheep or for wine or for strong drink or for whatsoever thy soul asketh of thee, and thou shalt eat there before Yahwe thy god and shalt rejoice, thou and thy household" (Deut. xiv, 26), and the survival of a similar custom, perhaps, in the celebration of the Lord's Supper in the Church of Corinth, where one was hungry and another drunken (1 Cor. xi, 21). Prof. Smith concludes that ancient heathenism was not made for times of sorrow, but for seasons of national prosperity (p. 245). Even in advanced forms of heathenism, he holds, when gods became in some measure the guardians of universal morality, what was gained in comprehensiveness was lost in intensity, and the advance towards ethical universalism was never sufficient to make up for the decline of the old heroic virtues that were fostered by the narrower type of national faith.

This view seems to us to overstate the facts, and not to recognize the true relation between the religious and the ethical developments of life. We have the history of ancient heathenism and of ancient Israelitism only in its more public features. Little or nothing of religious biography has come down to us, but the little that we have presents the worshipper as turning to his god for consolation and help in times of sorrow with the same earnestness and hope that characterize the best forms of religion known to us. The Babylonian penitential psalms, which are not later than the seventh century B. C., show an intensity of religious feeling and a capacity of trust which any worshipper of to-day might be glad to possess. The Babylonians doubtless had their orgiastic festivals, but they had also their seasons of private devotion; and we can hardly doubt that such seasons recurred in the lives of individuals in all ancient communities, Hebrew and heathen. The ethical character of private devotion varied with the stage of social-ethical development: a Hebrew of the time of Gideon or Samson would naturally be inferior in spirituality to a Greek of the circle of Socrates and Plato. Trust in the divinity in times of distress is a natural sentiment which does not depend on the special form of the organization of religion. It is equally erroneous to suppose that the character of human virtue is wholly determined or even essentially modified by the character of religious systems. If a causal relation between the two must be affirmed, it should rather be stated in the converse direction, but it is more accurate to regard virtue and piety as determined in their forms by the same general social conditions, and standing to one another in a complementary relation. What we call the robust virtues of half-organized societies are the product of social conditions, and it is these same conditions that give shape to the characters of gods and the rites by which their favor is gained. To represent later stages of civilization as inferior to earlier in moral robustness is to use this term in an improper sense. Exactly the opposite may be said to be true. What is usually described as the decadent period of Roman life, the age of the Cæsars, produced a type of character which in honesty, courage, and fortitude was certainly inferior to nothing that the early annals of Greece and Rome exhibit. The later Hebrew heroes, such as Nehemiah, Judas Maccabæus, and John the Baptist, are in all respects, to say the least, the equals of those names which adorn the old history.

The progress of organized religion is intimately connected with the development of piacular offerings, a point which Prof. Smith treats at length with the special purpose of determining the origin and religious significance of the piacula. These he regards as going back in their simplest form to a very early period, but as deriving a special significance from later social-national conditions. The ancient annual piaculum, he thinks, was not a means of obtaining forgiveness for the sins of the past year; the explanation was generally sought in a myth founded on the features of the ritual. The sacrifice was often a human victim, as among the Carthaginians and the Arabs of Dumaetha; the Semitic annual piaculum, however, was generally taken to be a commemoration of the death of the god, as in the case of Dido and Adonis. The death of the god was originally simply the death of the theanthropic victim, and the mourning for the dead deity was not originally a lament over decaying nature (though this it came to be in the later developed ritual), but simply the official mourning over the slaughter of a theanthropic victim in whose death the god died.

> "That the god-man dies for his people, and that his death is their life, is an idea which was in some degree foreshadowed by the oldest mystical sacrifices. It was foreshadowed, indeed, in a very crude and materialistic form, and without any of those ethical ideas which the Christian doctrine of the atonement derives from a profounder sense of sin and divine justice" (p. 393).

The piaculum was thus, according to our author, a communion of blood, that is, of life, between man and the god, and issues out of the old conception of kinship and identity of nature between the deity and his worshippers.

Accepting this as the primitive form, there remain to be explained the later mystic sacrifices and the more specific expiatory rites, such as the sin-offering of the Hebrews and their ceremony of the annual day of atonement. For the explanation of those sacrifices, peculiar to mystic rites or to extraordinary emergencies when a sacrosanct victim was chosen whose slaughter would at other times be unlawful, Mr. Smith lays great stress on those historical conditions which tended to break up the old clan-constitution, establish despotic monarchies, and break down to some extent the old national isolation. Mystic rites, he thinks, sprang in great measure out of international thought, and the severe and gloomy type which Israelitish religion assumed in the seventh century under Manasseh he ascribes to a general feeling that the old sacrifices had lost their efficacy, and that more potent means must be adopted to secure the favor of the gods. No doubt some weight is to be allowed to these considerations, but they do not seem to touch the heart of the question. In very early forms of religion we find intense and savage methods of placating the deity. The fundamental fact in the later gloomy aspect of Semitic and other religions is moral

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growth, the deeper sense of sin, the generally more serious way of looking at life. The more joyous side of early faiths comes from their childishness; it is the consciousness of grave moral questions that gives gravity, gloominess, or moroseness to religion—the Roundheads are always deeper moral-religious thinkers than the Cavaliers. From this point of view the history of human sacrifice becomes especially interesting. Our author does not treat it consecutively or in detail; he explains it as he does mystic and extraordinary sacrifices in general. Lack of space, no doubt, enforced condensation and brevity, and indeed a full discussion of this rite would require a volume.

The details of Mr. Smith's treatment of his subject must be passed over with the remark that he gives freshness and life to everything he touches. The history of ancient sacrificial ritual is commonly looked on as a dry topic; he has brought it into organic connection with ancient life in such a way as to make it interesting throughout to the general reader as well as to the specialist. The volume is, as we have said, a contribution to the history of early religion. In the Semitic field, especially, his references to native authorities form a valuable bibliography for the scholar. Many of these he has collected himself, and, where he is indebted to others for references, it is evident that he does not quote without personal examination. No reader of the book, whether he agree or disagree with the author in whole or in part, can fail to admire its fulness of learning and brightness and suggestiveness of thought. One could wish that there was a full analytical table of contents; this would help the student to follow the course of the argument, which is sometimes obscured by the mass of details. The difficulty is partly but not wholly obviated by the page headings, which follow the subjects of the paragraphs. There is a fairly good general index.

ENGLAND AND HER COLONIES.

Problems of Greater Britain. By Sir Charles Wentworth Dilke. Macmillan & Co.

THE mere fact that this work is issued by the same publishers, and is uniform in outward appearance, with Prof. Bryce's book on the 'American Commonwealth,' may have much significance. Although nothing has been said to indicate that these are the initial volumes of a library dealing in a scientific way with the political and social problems now seeking solution under various forms of government, the idea of such a library is so admirable that it certainly ought to be carried out. So wide a range of subjects, of the deepest interest to thoughtful and intelligent readers, would be covered by such a library that it is hardly necessary to point out its value, especially if future volumes should be characterized by the accuracy and ability that distinguish those already published.

In 'Problems of Greater Britain' Sir Charles Dilke presents an elaborate study of the condition of the various British colonies, explains the legislative and other differences that exist between them and the mother country, and makes interesting forecasts of their future. Owing to the plan adopted by him of first stating all the important facts relating to each colony, and afterwards recapitulating special groups of facts under such heads as education, religion, etc., there is a certain amount of repetition which, perhaps, might have been avoided; but, as a compensation, the reader who wishes to refer to particular subjects will find his labor lightened by an excellent index.

Newfoundland comes first on the list of colonies, but Sir Charles Dilke has nothing very interesting to say about the land of "cods, dogs, and fogs," except that it is one of the few colonies with a large Irish population which retain their loyalty to the English crown. The valuable fisheries have been the cause of continual diplomatic differences between England and France since the beginning of the century, and at the present moment a settlement proposed by England is being angrily declined by the colony. Owing to the severity of the winter climate, one-third of the revenue has to be expended for the relief of distress, and a great future can hardly be predicted for a land so little blessed by nature.

Coming next to the Dominion of Canada, attention is called to the fact that it is now receiving more British emigrants than Australia. The completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway has opened up an immense and fertile country for settlement, and this, together with some assistance from the British Government, has stimulated the movement of late years; but the feeling against assisted immigration, which has entirely put a stop to it in Australia, has spread to Canada, and experiments in this direction will not be repeated. Since this book was written, there has been a marked falling off in the arrivals of immigrants, as a result of better times in England, and they will continue to fluctuate from such causes. It is rather remarkable that, out of a population of 5,000,000, 4,000,000 are Canadian born, and the rate of increase by natural growth is very rapid, especially among the French-speaking people. Sixty years ago Tocqueville found ten times as many French Canadians in the country as had been there at the time of the British conquest, and he said they were as French as he was, and much more like the French than the Americans were like the English. If their present rate of increase continues, they will be able to hold their own in spite of English immigration, and there is no likelihood, judging from recent Quebec legislation, that they will abandon their language. They are strongly loyal to England, because their ancestors obtained from her political and social liberties which France had refused them, and the sense of obligation seems to have been handed down from one generation to another, as in the case of Alsace. It is often claimed, as in this book, that the tone of politics is higher in Canada than in the United States; but those who are familiar with the way in which things are done at Ottawa, would be unwilling to allow even so modest a claim as this. If we would find a pure political atmosphere among the Anglo-Saxon nations of to-day, we must look for it on the Australian rather than the American Continent.

Sir Charles Dilke regards it as a misfortune for Canada that that "great English writer and powerful controversialist," Mr. Goldwin Smith, should write as strongly as he does against the whole scheme of Canadian confederation. As a matter of fact, however, the majority of Canadians are in favor of the present system, and Mr. Goldwin Smith's political writings have not been successful in the sense of making converts to his views. But while the majority of voters seem to think that the progress of Canada since 1878 has been the result of a protective tariff, it is open to question whether that progress would not have been still greater under free trade. The Dominion has a larger area and a larger population than Australia, and was settled much earlier, yet her trade is smaller and the condition of her working classes decidedly inferior. Canadian manufacturers are suffering to-day, as are Australian manufacturers in a less degree, from over-production, a limited market, and inability to meet European competition in the markets of the world. Those who would change the present system are mostly in favor of commercial union with the United States, but this would mean free trade with us and differential duties against the mother country.

In dealing with the liquor question the Canadians have achieved a remarkable measure of success. The Scott Act, which is a Dominion local-option law, giving power to close rumshops by a bare majority of votes, without compensation, has not been invariably successful, owing to the imperfection of the machinery for its enforcement; but it has undoubtedly led to a reduced consumption of liquor, so that this is now less per head than in any other English-speaking country. In Ontario, apart from the Scott act, the maximum number of licenses that can be granted in any district has long been regulated according to population, and in recent legislation on the subject the "civil-damages clause" adopted by some of our State legislatures has been incorporated.

Sir Charles Dilke is very hopeful of the future of the Dominion, and expresses his belief that the one drawback to her present position, if she desires to remain unabsorbed by the United States, is the absence of sufficient means of defence in case of war. Other observers are apprehensive of the increasing strength of the Church of Rome, which is more powerful in Canada than in any Catholic country in Europe, and claims 42 per cent. of the religious population. Recent cases in which the Roman Catholic hierarchy has become involved in important political questions would seem to justify the latter view.

Those who are not familiar with the political divisions of Australia, or whose geographical ideas of the great continent are somewhat hazy, will find by looking at the map that by far the most important and most thickly populated British colonies are in the southeast corner. There, side by side, are the rival commonwealths of Victoria and New South Wales. To the north of New South Wales is Queensland, while to the west of Victoria the self-governing colony of South Australia and the crown colony of Western Australia occupy the remainder of the Continent. And here it is well to explain that in the colonies which have responsible government, the Crown has only a veto on legislation—very seldom exercised—and the Colonial Office no control except over the Governor, while the Crown Colonies are to all intents and purposes governed by the Colonial Office. The Crown Colony stage is the first stage in the life of a British colony, and the natural gravitation of Crown colonies towards self-government seems to be as steady as that of self governing colonies towards entire independence. It is a curious fact that Victoria and the colonies to the westward are more loyal to the English connection than New South Wales and its neighbor Queensland; and while Victoria and South Australia are strongly protectionist, New South Wales and Queensland are rather in favor of free trade. It should be added, however, that at present there is a growing popular sentiment throughout Australia in favor of inter-colonial free trade, coupled with protection against the rest of the world; and England finds here as in Canada that the possession of a colonial empire means increased duties on her manufactures.

Interesting comparisons have been made between the free-trade colony of New South Wales and its protectionist rival Victoria; but such comparisons have generally been open to the objection that the important facts were not

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all given, and the conclusions were consequently unsound. While it is true that New South Wales has caught up to Victoria both in population and revenue, it must be remembered that the former colony has a much larger area than the latter, and enough coal to supply the Victorian manufacturers as well as her own. It is doubtful whether the New South Wales manufacturers could have maintained their position but for this abundant supply of cheap coal. Until recently the Victorian tariff ranged from 17 to 25 per cent. on the articles taxed, which would not be considered a high tariff in this country; but duties have been materially raised, and there is no doubt that Victoria is now suffering from overproduction, while the depression in the gold-mining industry has been increased by the tariff charges on imported machinery. The low-grade goods, which alone are manufactured there, are produced on such a scale that protection is no longer needed, especially in view of the heavy freight charges on goods imported from England; but the manufacturers, there as elsewhere, are unwilling to admit that such is the case.

In this connection it should be said that protection in Australia differs from protection in the United States in that it is demanded rather by the working classes, in the endeavor to keep up high wages, than by the employers of labor. In the two colonies above named, the hours of labor, wages, and the cost of living are about the same, and on the whole the advantage seems to be slightly on the side of the free-traders; but in spite of this the workingmen's vote in New South Wales, as elsewhere in Australia, is giving the protectionist cause the appearance of gaining ground. A direct issue between the two policies is now being tried, in the effort on the part of each colony to control the trade of the Riverina, a rich settlement on the Murray River where it divides the two colonies; and it seems probable that in this case the free-traders, being able to supply all imported articles at lower rates, will capture the business. Whichever policy may finally prevail, the growth of the external trade of Australia, taken as a whole, is very noteworthy, for in spite of the comparatively small population, it already exceeds the trade of Great Britain at the time of Queen Victoria's accession.

Apart from the tariff question, American readers will be interested in the growth of State Socialism in the Australian colonies. The Australians are of the opinion that the State should build and own the railroads and other public works, and generally act in direct opposition to the Spencerian theory of the proper sphere of government. As far as railroads are concerned, the Government management seems to be excellent. The service is good, the rates are low, and yet the roads earn a fair rate of interest on their cost, and the country at large does not lose by the competitive waste resulting from such a system, or lack of system, as ours. One explanation of this state of things is to be found, in the case of Victoria, in the existence of a Board of Civil-Service Commissioners, organized five years ago, who make all Government appointments on the merit system. The plan of making such appointments non-political has been found to work admirably in practice. Not only is the Victorian civil service the best in the world, but the change has had an equally good effect on the general tone of politics, and the attention of every United States Senator and member of Congress may well be directed to Sir Charles Dilke's account of the matter at page 121. Another experiment, which may be of immense importance to some of our Western States, is now being tried in different parts of Australia, namely, irrigation on a large scale. The outcome of this effort will be watched with much interest, as it is confidently expected that the whole character of the country and its cultivation will be changed; but so extensive are the necessary works that some years must elapse before any very definite result can be arrived at.

In dealing with the liquor question, the Australians have generally adopted local option. As in Canada, there is much less drinking than in England, and the prohibition cause is gaining ground. Sir Charles Dilke says of the people that, while they lack something of the earnestness of the New Englanders, they are beginning to share their temperance and sobriety. The eight-hour day for all laborers has not yet been formally legalized, but it has been universally adopted throughout Australasia, and the working-classes are better off in many ways than those of any European country. Wages are so high that the wage-earners are able to save money and buy property; hence, on the one hand, the absence of any movement to change the present relations of capital and labor, and, on the other, strong opposition to the importation of Chinese laborers and assisted immigrants from England. Throughout Australia there is a marked preference for life in large cities as compared with small towns. Thus Melbourne contains a greater proportion of the people of the State than does any other capital in the world, and Sydney is growing equally fast. This movement is partly due to the admirable railroad facilities, which make the large cities the best markets, and no doubt in part to superior educational advantages and to that love of amusements which is characteristic of the Australian people.

Australian Federation on the Canadian model is growing in favor, and has been partially accomplished. It would have been so entirely but for the long-standing jealousy between New South Wales and Victoria, and New Zealand's fear that, by joining such a federation, she would in effect become a mere dependency of Australia. A more serious matter from the British point of view is, at the present moment, the steady growth of a desire for separation from the mother country. The never-ending Irish question may have a good deal to do with the existence of this desire; but it must also be borne in mind that the bond which unites Great and Greater Britain is largely a sentimental one, and a new generation is growing up in Australia that has no personal knowledge of or sentiment for the old country. Moreover, it is becoming evident that, under the conditions of modern naval warfare, England could not successfully defend her distant colonies if she became involved in a great European war, and the Australians are therefore taking the matter of their own defence into their own hands. While this may be a relief to the British Government, it cannot but tend to weaken the tie between the two countries.

In the British South African colonies a new set of problems is encountered, some of which result from the fact that not only is the native population much larger than the European, but the Dutch population is larger than the English. The relations between the English and Dutch colonists are now on a satisfactory footing, but within a few years they have been far otherwise in consequence of England's unsuccessful attempt to annex the South African Republic, commonly known as the Transvaal. Quite recently the success of gold-mining in the Transvaal has led to a large English immigration, and it begins to look as if the English-speaking population would soon outnumber the Dutch. For the present, however, the Boers insist on the use of Cape Dutch—which, by the way, cannot be understood in Amsterdam—as the official language; and even if this is eventually changed, it is extremely improbable that the republican form of government will change with it; for it appears that English Conservatives—owing doubtless to some peculiarity in the climate—no sooner reach the Transvaal than they become ardent Republicans!

Since 1885 England, Germany, and France have been running a race in the division or acquisition of unoccupied territories both in Africa and among the Pacific Islands, until the new maps are completely colored with different tints marking the possessions or claims of these Powers. The trouble that has now arisen between England and Portugal in relation to territory claimed by both countries in the Zambesi Valley, shows that the boundaries of the different territories or protectorates are not well defined, and as a matter of fact no two of the maps are found to agree. The aggressive policy of the British trading companies has led to the present difficulty, and it is tolerably certain that similar difficulties will arise in the near future, especially if Stanley's forthcoming book should give a favorable account of the interior of the continent.

The importance of India to England is partly political and partly financial. The loss of India, either by Russian invasion or native revolt, or both combined, would mean for England an immense loss of prestige, and a consequent rapid increase in the separatist feeling that already exists in many of the colonies. On the other hand, England's Indian investments in railways and other enterprises are on an enormous scale, and bring in an annual income of sixty or seventy millions sterling, the whole of which would be lost with the possession of the country. Having these facts in view, Sir Charles Dilke devotes much space to the consideration of the best way of defending India from Russian attack by way of Herat and Balkh. He considers that, with the assistance of Afghanistan, which can be counted on during the lifetime of the present Ameer, the precautions already taken by the English at Quetta and other points along the frontier are sufficient, provided the Russians do not advance beyond the line of demarcation agreed upon two years ago; but either the death of the Ameer or a Russian advance on Herat would render the English position very uncertain. India is to-day better prepared for defence than England, but that is not saying much, and any additional expenditure for defensive purposes must be met by an increase of taxation, which is already too high, or by recourse to the British exchequer, which would be very unpopular in England. Moreover, in case of an invasion by the Russians, the English army on the frontier would be menaced by a very serious danger in their rear in the shape of the large armies maintained by the independent native princes. An early disaster would doubtless lead to a repetition of the events of 1857, aggravated by the presence of a successful foreign invader.

Turning to the financial side of the question, the growth of Indian manufactures under a free-trade system has been very rapid—so much so that Lancashire, having some years ago obtained the removal of duties on cotton goods shipped to India, is now driven by increasing Indian competition to agitate for the limitation of the working hours of Indian factory hands. The country seems to be benefited, as Australia is, by Government control of railroads, and no doubt for the same rea-

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son—the efficiency of the civil service. But while all European critics admit the excellence of the British Government of India, it is becoming evident that the rulers are not sufficiently in sympathy with the ruled. The educational system inaugurated by Macaulay is bearing fruit in the shape of a rising generation of cultivated natives, who complain loudly because they are shut out from any important share in the government of the country, and the time is at hand when their complaints will have to be met. A move in this direction has recently been tried by giving natives a share in municipal government, but they fully appreciated the labor as well as the honor of such participation, and the native criticism was voiced by one old gentleman who remarked: "Where you formerly got rupees from us you now hope to get both rupees and work." Sir Charles Dilke confirms the reports of other observers in regard to the failure of missionary efforts in India and the East generally. In fact, the Hindus have lately founded Hindu Tract Societies for the propagation of Hinduism, and have started an anti-Christian agitation which has emptied the missionary schools; while in Mauritius it is alleged that the few converts made are practically bought, and are really left without any religion at all.

The most interesting feature in the British West Indian colonies is the success of the system of small holdings and peasant proprietorship as compared with large plantations. The revenue of the colonies, in spite of losses in sugar of late years, is four times what it was before emancipation, and there has been a marked improvement in the education and comfort of the colored people, as also in the social position of prominent individuals of the African race. On the other hand, the white population is steadily decreasing, and in Barbados, for example, there are absolutely fewer white settlers than in the middle of the seventeenth century.

Only a few of the 'Problems of Greater Britain' are here referred to, but enough perhaps to show that Sir Charles Dilke has produced a book which will well repay careful reading. The relations of the British colonies to the mother country are matters of interest to the whole Anglo-Saxon race, and particularly to that part of it which led the way in securing independent government. Statistics showing the growth of different nations are pointing more and more to the probable fulfilment of the celebrated prophecy made by Prévost-Paradol twenty years ago—that the world would one day be owned by three races, the Anglo-Saxon, the Russian, and the Chinese. He foresaw the rapid extension of the Anglo-Saxon race in consequence of its colonizing spirit, and its power of absorbing people of other races and languages—a power which he found wanting in his own countrymen. It is in some such way as this, in the survival of her language and of her traditions of freedom among millions of self-governing people in every part of the world, that England must seek her reward for rearing a family of apparently ungrateful children.

RECENT FOLK-LORE PUBLICATIONS.

Folk-Lore and Legends: Germany, Scotland, Ireland, Oriental. White & Allen. 1889. 4 vols. 16mo, pp. xv, 184; viii, 192; viii, 192; viii, 192.

Ancient Cures, Charms, and Usages of Ireland: Contributions to Irish Lore, by Lady Wilde. Scribner & Welford. 1890. 12mo, pp. xi, 256.

Myths and Folk-Lore of Ireland. By Jeremiah Curtin. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1890. 12mo, pp. vi, 345.

Sixty Folk-Tales from Exclusively Slavonic Sources. Translated, with brief introduction and notes, by A. H. Wratislaw. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890. 12mo, pp. xii, 315.

Pawnee Hero Stories and Folk-Tales. With notes on the origin, customs, and character of the Pawnee people, by G. B. Grinnell. New York: *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. 1889. 12mo, pp. xxi, 417.

Flowers from a Persian Garden, and Other Papers. By W. A. Clouston. London: David Nutt. 1890. 12mo, pp. xii, 368.

Chinese Games with Dice. By Stewart Culin. Read before the Oriental Club of Philadelphia, March 14, 1889. Philadelphia. 1889. 8vo, pp. 21.

THE interest in folk-lore seems to be steadily increasing in this country, if we may take as a proof of it the large number of works on the subject which have recently been published here, and the substantial support rendered to the American Folk-Lore Society. It is quite natural that at first greater interest should be taken in one particular class of folk-lore—popular tales—for they appeal to both the learned and the unlearned, and may be equally enjoyed by those who see in them sun-myths or survivals of savagery, and by those who find in them only an interesting phase of human fancy. For this reason we shall continue to have for a long time collections distinctly intended for each of these classes of readers, and attempts to attract both by the same work.

Of the works before us, the first two on the list belong to the class of books intended for the general reader, and it is perhaps not fair to subject them to scientific criticism, or to ask of them more than the quality of entertainment. 'Folk-Lore and Legends,' as its name does not very clearly show, is a collection of the popular tales of various countries. The selections are made with taste, and the versions are animated if not always exact. It is to be regretted that the compiler never deigns to mention his sources throughout the four volumes thus far issued. Ten of the stories in volume one are from Grimm's 'Household Tales,' eleven in the fourth volume from 'The Relations of Ssidi Kur' (*i. e.*, Vikram and the Vampire), the others from the numerous older collections of the stories of the several countries.

We have already had occasion to speak of Lady Wilde's contributions to Irish folk-lore. The present volume has the air of being made up of the remnants of other works, pieced out by essays historical, anthropological, and political. The result, as usual, is a very readable volume, although Lady Wilde has again missed the chance of making a serious contribution to Irish folk-lore.

This task, curiously enough, has been reserved for an American, and Mr. Curtin is the first to give to the public a volume of Irish popular tales which may justly be ranked with the best recent collections of popular tales in Germany, France, and Italy. He has collected his stories from the mouths of the people in the West of Ireland (Kerry, Galway, and Donegal), and reproduced them in an animated and apparently true English version. He has prefixed to his book a very sensible introduction on the subject of mythology and folk-tales, and appended a few notes on the proper names and peculiar characters in the stories. The only thing lacking is some comparison between the tales collected by Mr. Curtin and the other collections of Celtic stories, notably Campbell's 'Popular Tales of the West Highlands,' and the recent volume of the Folk-Lore Society, containing Folk and Hero Tales collected by the Rev. D. MacInnes. This is not the place to perform this task, and we can only say that the tales collected by Mr. Curtin offer many new combinations of familiar episodes. An extraordinary example of the preservation of plot (a thing sometimes lost sight of in the discussion of the origin of popular tales) is found in the story of "The Fisherman's Son and the Gruagach of Tricks," which is substantially the story of "The Thief and His Master" (Grimm, No. 68). The same may also be said of "Shaking-head," p. 186, which belongs to the class of stories known as "The Thankful Dead." Although a number of episodes in Mr. Curtin's tales have their counterparts in Campbell and MacInnes, no entire story in Curtin can be found in the other two collections. Mr. Curtin has made a delightful book alike for the scholar and general reader, and it is hoped that he will soon give us more of his Celtic treasures.

The 'Sixty Folk-Tales from Exclusively Slavonic Sources' might easily have been made more valuable had the editor displayed even a slight knowledge of folk-lore in general; but his share in the work consists of an occasional inane remark upon the subject of solar mythology, and a rare reference to Ralston and Grimm. The stories in themselves are interesting, and cover a wide geographical range; and are especially welcome inasmuch as comparatively few Slavic folk-tales have been translated into English, and the linguistic difficulties will always be an obstacle in the way of the student of comparative folk-lore. The present examples do not possess much originality, and, unlike those of Curtin just mentioned, entire stories have counterparts in other collections. Thus, "Long, Broad, and Sharpsight," p. 4, is a variant of Grimm, No. 71, "How Six Men Got on in the World"; "The Three Lemons," p. 63, is "The Love of the Three Oranges" (Crane's 'Italian Popular Tales,' p. 338), and there are other Italian tales with the very same name; "Right Always Remains Right" is "True and Untrue" (Dasent's 'Popular Tales from the Norse,' No. 1); "The Spirit of a Buried Man," p. 121, is a variant of "The Thankful Dead" mentioned above, etc.

From Slavic folk-tales to Pawnee Hero Stories and Folk-Tales is a long stride, and there is little in common between them. Mr. Grinnell's title is somewhat misleading, and his book, although we hasten to say that it is excellent and entertaining, contains almost nothing that can be called popular tales as the words are generally understood. The stories are almost exclusively of adventure. There are two ghost stories, "The Ghost Wife" and "The Ghost Bride," much alike, and one in which animals alone are the actors, "How the Deer Lost His Gall." A certain amount of folk-lore is to be found in the notes on the relationships, customs, and religion of the Pawnees by Mr. Grinnell, who, for the rest, gives a very vivid account of an Indian tribe now rapidly on its way to civilization. No one can read the "Later History" of the tribe without shame for the American people and hope and respect for the Pawnees.

Mr. Clouston has accustomed us to interesting and valuable works from his pen, and his last volume is no exception to the rule. It is made up of a number of papers, mostly on Oriental tales and aphorisms. The title is taken from the first paper, on the "Gulistán, or Rose-Garden," of the Persian poet Saádí.

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This is followed by an article on Oriental wit and humor; selections from the Oriental story-book "Tales of a Parrot"; Rabbinical legends, tales, fables, and aphorisms; an Arabian love story; the apocryphal life of Æsop; ignorance of the clergy in the middle ages; and an essay on the beards of our fathers. The editor has drawn upon his extensive knowledge of the East for a host of amusing stories, and there is not a dull page in his book, except, perhaps, in the penultimate paper, which is out of place and not quite fair to the clergy. The book may be enjoyed by any one, and offers a rich harvest to anybody who is fond of hunting up Oriental parallels for modern jokes.

Mr. Culin of Philadelphia has had the happy idea to study the customs of the Chinese in this country, and has already collected and published some valuable materials in this field. He has now directed his attention to Chinese games, and the paper before us deals with Chinese games of dice, and is to be followed by similar accounts of dominoes, playing-cards, and chess. Mr. Culin has obtained his information chiefly from Chinese laborers in this country, and has prepared a paper worthy to be read and preserved.

THE INDUSTRIAL TRANSITION IN JAPAN.

The Industrial Transition in Japan. By Yeijiro Ono, Ph.D. American Economic Association. 1890.

As late as April, 1870, a Japanese noble, standing up in the temporary Parliament at Tokio, and speaking against a proposition to allow partnerships between natives and foreigners, said: "If our people enter into partnerships with foreigners, the lust of amassing gain will breed hatred and quarrels." There is a sentence of Mencius, current in feudal times, which runs: "When superiors and inferiors try to snatch the profit from one another, the country is endangered," and expresses the same orthodox abhorrence and contempt with which the gainful pursuits of commerce and industry were to be regarded by every gentleman. When we realize that exactly this sort of sentiment was ingrained in the dominant class in Japan for many centuries before the Restoration, we can partly understand how stunted and backward was its industrial life, and how great a task of development it has had to undertake. The fact is, that amid the interest roused by the new political life of that nation, we have almost overlooked the conditions of its industrial life.

The keynote of Japan's problem to-day (we do not mean as it appears to a foreigner, but as it comes consciously up to the people themselves) is: How shall the nation take its place in the midst of modern civilization as a factor deserving consideration? This is the question as it was formulated nearly ten years ago by Mr. Fukuzawa, the great Japanese editor, educator, and public thinker, in his 'Complaints of the Times'; and it continues to-day to be the living question. If its political and moral bearings are prominent, it asserts itself also in its industrial aspect, and is resolved into this: How can Japan become industrially and commercially successful in the business life of the world?

Of previous attempts to answer this question the only noteworthy one (Prof. Rein in his 'Industries of Japan' has given less than a page to the discussion of the problem as such) has been that of Gen. C. W. Legendre, in 'Progressive Japan' (New York, 1878). But this work is of very uneven merit, and, albeit perhaps more concrete and practical in some respects, does not compare in breadth of view and carefulness of reasoning with Mr. Ono's 'Industrial Transition in Japan.' Mr. Ono's monograph (though one cannot help noticing a faint odor of the university library) gives us not only an able treatment, but the most comprehensive and helpful one that has yet been afforded. He begins by surveying with some detail the present economic conditions in Japan, summing them up as a primitive and feudal agriculture, manufactures very little beyond the stage of house industries, and a transportation system utterly inadequate. It is worth while to call attention to the misunderstanding which seems to exist, among both native and foreign writers, as to the facts and possibilities of agricultural production in Japan. For example, in a paper by Dr. Latham, quoted in a United States consular report for 1888, it was stated that the average yield per acre of land in Japan was fifty bushels of rice, forty of wheat, or fifty of barley. Now, the yield in fact varies from eighteen to forty bushels of rice, from eight to twenty-two of wheat, and from ten to thirty of barley; the average in wheat and barley for 1887 being twelve and seventeen bushels respectively. Moreover, the small per-capita distribution of land (one-half to one and one-half acres) brings down to a minimum the individual share of the distributed product. Gen. Legendre, for example, compares (1878) the American farmer, with $137 per annum, with the Japanese farmer and his $8 per annum. Mr. Ono compares the English farmer's 544 bushels of wheat per annum with the Japanese and his twenty-six bushels of rice, and perhaps a dozen more of wheat.

Mr. Ono goes on to discuss the special causes which hinder the progress of Japanese agriculture, and finds them to be, first, the poor means of transportation; secondly, the high rate of land-taxes; thirdly, the badly adjusted system of land-holdings; fourthly, the lack of scientific knowledge and modern methods, and a resulting disinclination and inability to carry out improvements and extend the scope of agriculture; and, finally, the backward condition of manufacturing, which should be developed not only for its own sake, but also in the interests of agriculture. It is due to Mr. Ono to point out that he makes clear, as neither Gen. Legendre nor Prof. Rein has seen fit to do, the actual method of calculating the land-tax. The valuation of the land was settled several years ago by taking the average yield for five years, estimating its value at the average prices for five years, calculating the net profit, considering it as 6 per cent., and capitalizing this sum. Upon this valuation the total tax, though nominally 3⅛ per cent. in all, is still equivalent (notwithstanding the recent steady rise in price of rice) to an income tax of 20 per cent. or 25 per cent. Mr. Ono, in placing it as low as 16 per cent., and Mr. Gubbins, in placing it as high as 40 per cent. (in his learned 'British Consular Report on Taxation,' 1884), are both probably in error.

A significant statistical item in regard to the deficiency of transportation facilities Mr. Ono has not noticed: In 1886 (the year of the last translated statistics) the number of freight cars was 1,168, of passenger cars 353, of wagons drawn by animals 14,516, of carriages 1,959; but of carts and wagons drawn by men the number was 474,290, and of jinrikishas 166,058. Moreover, with all the recently projected railroad mileage noticed by Mr. Ono, that actually in operation in October, 1889, was less than 1,000. His suggestions for the improvement of agriculture and the development of manufactures we leave the reader to consult for himself. They are always clearly and carefully expressed, even if not in as much detail as the subject deserves; we wish, though, that he had dwelt more upon the possibilities of stock-raising and the means of obtaining cheap and abundant fertilizers. He might also refer more in detail to the scarcity of capital; that of England, for example, is about $20 per capita, that of the United States $18, of Italy $12, while in Japan it falls to about $5. An enlarged work, based on this monograph, exhaustively treating each of its topics, would be very acceptable from Mr. Ono's hands, and ought to insure him that reward which very few young men in Japan can resist, a secretaryship or directorship in a Government bureau.

We notice one or two slips which may be avoided another time. "The authentic history of the Japanese people" (p. 11) does *not* begin with the date 660 B. C. This error has been exploded for many years, though, to be sure, Prof. Rein and others continue to promulgate it. That "1.9 ri = 1 geographical mile" (p. 71) is true if the German and not the English geographical mile is meant, for the former is just four times as long as the latter. Finally, although the movement of population in feudal times was not large, still it is not true that (p. 20) "there was no way, except that of adoption into a family, by which a man could establish himself in a strange community." Witness, for example, this clause from an old *Kumi-cho* or *Na-yoshei-cho* (a remarkable sort of document, signed jointly by all the members of a village, pledging faith with each other to the observance of certain rules): "Any person coming from any other part of the country and asking permission to live in the village will be permitted to do so on naming a responsible person as security for his behavior." It is well known, too, that various daimios offered inducements to immigrants from other provinces who should come and reclaim waste land. The restriction Mr. Ono mentions existed, if at all, for samurai (the military class) only.

John Jay. By George Pellew. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

THIS is an interesting book, well thought out and well written, in spite of occasional ambiguities. The proof-reading, however, has been careless. Thus, we read "Rhode Island" for Long Island (p. 83), "Philadelphia" for Poughkeepsie (p. 257), and we are informed that "le papillon neutre" does not neutralize an enemy's merchandise (p. 310). To do so would be serious work, indeed, for a butterfly.

To American lawyers, John Jay is perhaps best known as the man who was willing to cease to be Chief Justice of the United States in order to become Governor of New York. This conduct is the more inexplicable that Jay was a decided Federalist and a man of quiet and scholarly character. Mr. Pellew has not made the course of his hero comprehensible in this respect. "I left the bench," said Jay, when asked to return to it by President Adams, "perfectly convinced that under a system so defective it would not obtain the energy, weight, and dignity which was essential to its affording due support to the national Government, nor acquire the public confidence and respect which, as the last resort of the justice of the nation, it should possess." It would be interesting to know the reason of Jay's dissatisfaction with the position of the Supreme Court under the Constitution. After his refusal the President

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appointed John Marshall to the Chief-Justiceship, since whose day the office has certainly never been thought deficient in weight or dignity.

It was as a diplomatist that Mr. Jay rendered the most valuable services to his country. Mr. Pellew gives a very clear and interesting account of the negotiations for peace in 1782 and 1783. The history of that transaction cannot be finally written until M. Doniol shall have given us his fourth volume, and until the Stevens manuscripts shall all be published. (Mr. Pellew has had access to an elaborate digest of the latter, with quotations, and has made good use of it.) But there is little doubt that everything essential in the questions between the United States and France concerning the peace is now known. The suspicions of Jay, that Vergennes was consulting the interests of Spain rather than those of the United States, appear to have been well founded. Under those circumstances the course taken by the American commissioner was bold, wise, and patriotic.

Mr. Pellew does not attribute to John Jay the more showy qualities by which popularity is generally attained. Yet there was evidently something in the silent and reserved man which extorted not only the respect of statesmen, but the admiration of the people. He was not a very great man, but the success of a government, of whatever form, must depend in large measure on its ability to pick out and support such men as he.

Les Normands dans les deux Mondes. Par G.-B. de Lagrèze. Paris. 1890. 12mo.

READERS of Du Chaillu's 'Viking Age' who are disappointed by his meagre sketch of the wanderings and exploits of the Northmen, will find them set forth by M. de Lagrèze in the attractive style which we are accustomed to expect from skilled French writers. The subject is an interesting one, not only to the reader for amusement, but to the historical student. We are led to ask ourselves what was the peculiar combination of race characteristics that enabled the populations of the Danish and Scandinavian peninsulas, so scanty in numbers, to achieve results so unparalleled. From the eighth to the tenth century scarce a corner of Europe was secure from their ravages. In their frail, open boats they dared the most tempestuous seas on long voyages. They occupied Iceland and Greenland, they coasted along the American continent, they plundered the shores of all the lands lying around the Mediterranean. But it was not only on the water that they made themselves feared by the most warlike communities of the time: leaving their boats, they made long expeditions inland, pillaging, burning, and destroying. Occasionally worsted in a pitched battle, they were more often victorious, and defeat seemed only to bring forth new swarms from the inexhaustible Northern hive. The conquests of England and of Normandy were not the most remarkable of their achievements. They dominated Russia, and the House of Rurik commenced the process which welded that formidable Power into an organized nation. From Russia they penetrated as far as Armenia to the East, and twice they reached and threatened Constantinople. Even after the Viking age had passed, history has no more romantic episode than the founding of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies by the sons of Tancred of Hauteville.

The influence of the race on the destinies of Europe has been greatly disproportionate to its numbers, not so much, perhaps, by establishing dynasties as by the infusion of its blood in other peoples. A very curious problem suggests itself, which our author leaves untouched: how it came to pass that the conquerors of the tenth century, whose name was everywhere a terror, fell during the later middle ages and in modern times into a position so comparatively unimportant. The Northmen are still admirable sailors, as the flourishing mercantile marine of Norway amply attests. The dauntless energy of the old sea-rover has adapted itself to peaceful pursuits, fitting the industrial tendencies of the age, and the only representatives of the Viking spirit have been Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII.; but the exploits of neither of these heroes left any permanent effect upon the destiny of their land. Sweden and Norway maintain their independence on the sufferance of Russia, and Denmark on that of Germany. Only the mutual jealousy of the greater Powers prevents their absorption, and the descendants of Regner Lodbrog and Hrolf the Ganger may at any time lose their distinctive nationalities. It is an instructive history from beginning to end, and the picturesque elements of its early development are attractively set forth by the practised hand of M. de Lagrèze.

Handbook of Descriptive and Practical Astronomy. By George F. Chambers. 4th ed. Vol. II. Instruments and Practical Astronomy. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.

IN reviewing the first volume of Mr. Chambers's great work, we spoke of its encyclopædic character and fulness of information. These qualities shine so conspicuously in the second volume, now before us, that a review in the ordinary sense is scarcely possible. It treats of instruments and practical astronomy, but the treatment is radically different from that adopted in technical works on the subject. Instead of intricate mathematical discussions, the reader has before him scores of illustrations showing on a large scale something about every telescope of note that has ever been made, from the imperfect instruments of Galileo and Newton to the huge tubes of Herschel and Ross and the refined telescopes of Pulkowa and California. The amateur astronomer and the general reader will find everything that a reasonable man could be expected to know about instruments of every class, as well as about building and fitting up an observatory and making observations on the heavenly bodies.

The minute bibliographical references and the extended catalogue of writings upon the various branches of astronomy render the book important to the professional worker. Like the preceding volume, it frequently shows a lack of discrimination in judging what to put in and what to leave out. But the critic can take no pleasure in seeking for defects in so magnificent a labor of love as that in which the author is engaged, and we cordially recommend his work to all lovers of the science who wish to be acquainted with that view of it most interesting to the general reader.

Crónicas Potosinas. Costumbres de la Edad Medieval Hispano-Americana. Por Vicente G. Quesada. Paris: Biblioteca de la Europa y América. 1890. 2 vols., pp 520, 492.

THESE latest volumes of the veteran Argentine writer, who is now Minister from his country at Washington, are almost wholly made up of articles of his which have appeared in the *Revista de Buenos Ayres*—a periodical of which he was the founder and for a long time the editor. As their title indicates, they have to do with the life and manners of the old viceroyalty of Upper Peru, now mostly Bolivian territory. Señor Quesada follows Franciscan and other chroniclers of discovery and exploration. He opens with a long account of the discovery of the mines of Potosí, and adds a few biographical sketches, together with versions of native legends and several historical tales. The dramatic movement of the latter is usually overborne by their historical interest, though some of them present the germs of excellent historical novels. As will be seen, the unity of Señor Quesada's work is to be found in time and place rather than in a single theme. He has gathered together a great many curious data in regard to a society of which the two main elements were the leaders of civilized Europe and the leaders of savage America, thrown into close contact, and lays the whole before his readers in a correct and agreeable style. The volumes are well worth attention, quite apart from the interest attaching to them in these Pan-American days.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brine, Mary D. "Bonnie Little Bonibel" and her "Day Off." E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Brown, J. M. The Political Beginnings of Kentucky. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co. $2.50.
Bullard, Prof. A. Arrows; or, The True Aim in Teaching and Study. A. S. Barnes & Co. 75 cents.
Bullen, A. H. Poems, Chiefly Lyrical, from Romances and Prose-tracts of the Elizabethan Ages. London: John C. Nimmo.
Carstensen, A. R. Two Summers in Greenland. London: Chapman & Hall.
Chambers's Encyclopædia. New ed. Vol. V. Friday to Humanitarians. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Dawson, W. H. Bismarck and State Socialism. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Du Chaillu, P. Adventures in the Great Forest of Equatorial Africa and the Country of the Dwarfs. Harper & Bros.
Fawcett, E. A Daughter of Silence. Belford Co. 50 cents.
Frazer, J. G. The Golden Bough: A Study in Comparative Religion. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $6.50.
Friday's Child. E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Gomme, G. L. The Village Community, with Special Reference to the Origin and Form of its Survivals in Britain. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Griswold, W. M. Directory of Writers for the Literary Press, particularly in the U. S. 3d ed. Bangor, Me.: W. M. Griswold.
Harrison, Jennie. Whose Fault? E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Howells, W. D. The Shadow of a Dream. Harper & Bros.
Humann, K., and Puchstein, O. Reisen in Kleinasien und Nordsyrien. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
Lawson, J. D. Rights, Remedies and Practice. Vol. V. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Ludlow, Rev. J. M. The Captain of the Janizaries. New ed. Harper & Bros.
Magnus, Lady K. Outlines of Jewish History (B. C. 586—C. E. 1890). Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America.

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A Son of Issachar. By E. S. BROOKS. A Romance of the days of Messias. 12mo, pp. vi + 293, $1.25.

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LADEEN. By JANET C. MCINNES. 8vo, cloth, gilt top, $1.00.

May Blossoms. By Lilian. 12mo, cloth, gilt top, $1.00.

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*** *List of spring publications sent on application.*

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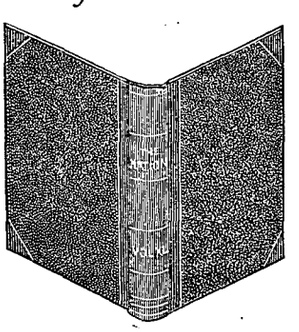

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